The Outlook

Vol. 73 March 7, 1903 No. 10

CONTENTS

THE WEEK:

The President and the South 506
The Statehood Bill Sidetracked 506
Legislation Impeded 507
The Currency Bills 507
The Anti-Lottery Decision 508
The Municipal Conference 509
Law Enforcement in West Virginia 510
The National Guard and Trades-Unions .. 511
A Bad Bill 512
Tenement-House Reform 512
Typhoid at Ithaca 513
The Methodist Mass-Meeting 513
Missionary Dangers in China 514
Mr. Balfour's Victory 515
The Tariff on Books 515
The Delaware Compromise 516

EDITORIALS:

The Beecher Memorial 516
Lenten Meditations 519
Justice to the Philippines 520

CONTRIBUTED ARTICLES:

The Philippine Tariff 521
By T. H. Patterson
The New German Ambassador (Portrait and Sketch) 523
When the Lamps are Lighted 525
By Arthur Hewitt
The Path of Roses (Poem) 533
By Priscilla Leonard
George Inness 535
By John C. Van Dyke
The Hand that Rules the World 544
By J. F. Farrell
Morning and Evening (Poem) 547
By Bliss Carman
Heroes of the Surf 548
By John R. Spears
What is the Sunday-School? 554
By the Rev. J. H. Vincent
The Slovak and the Pole in America 555
By Edward A. Steiner
The Day's Work (Poem) 564
By Charles P. Cleaves
The New American Navy: Preparing for the War with Spain 565
By John D. Long
John Burns 583
By Justin McCarthy
BOOKS OF THE WEEK 590
CORRESPONDENCE 595

The Outlook is a Weekly Newspaper and an Illustrated Monthly Magazine in one. It is published every Saturday—fifty-two issues a year. The first issue in each month is an Illustrated Magazine Number, containing about twice as many pages as the regular weekly issue, and many pictures.

Price.—The subscription price is Three Dollars a year, payable in advance. Ten cents a copy.

Postage is Prepaid by the publishers for all subscriptions in the United States, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico, Tutuila Samoa, Canada, and Mexico. For all other countries in the Postal Union add $1.56 for postage.

Change of Address.—When a change of address is ordered, both the new and the old address must be given. The notice should be sent one week before the change is to take effect.

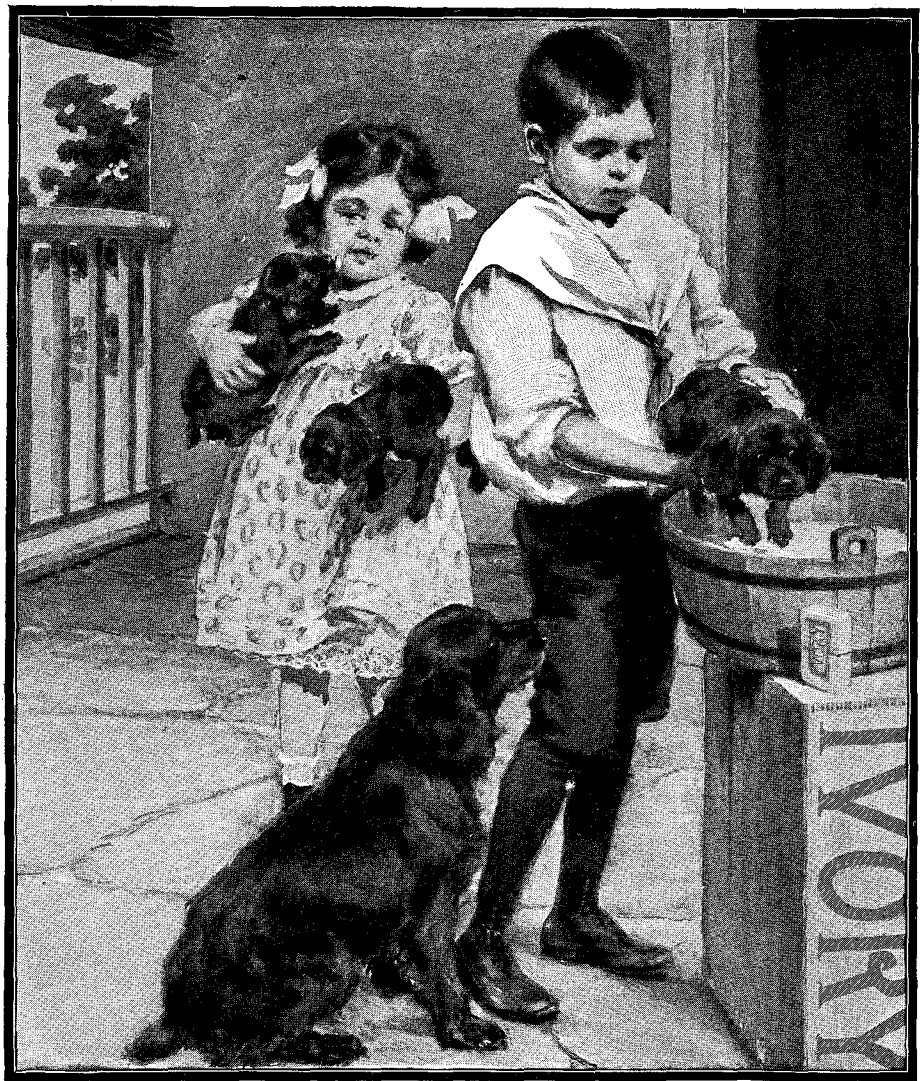
Discontinuances.—If a subscriber wishes his copy of the paper discontinued at the expiration of his subscription, notice to that effect should be sent. Otherwise it is assumed that a continuance of the subscription is desired.

How to Remit.—Remittances should be sent by Draft on New York, Express-Order, or Money-Order, payable to order of THE OUTLOOK COMPANY. Cash should be sent in Registered Letter.

Letters should be addressed:

THE OUTLOOK COMPANY
287 Fourth Avenue, New York

Copyright, 1903, by The Outlook Company. Entered as second-class matter in the New York Post-Office.



SOME have only themselves to keep clean, but the housekeeper has many and varied tasks of cleanliness. It is not, however, now necessary that she should have for these, several kinds of soap each fitted to clean only one thing. Ivory Soap is pure, and because of its purity it is at all times the soap to select when soap is needed. It drives away dirt with all its unpleasant consequences, and your confidence is increased every time you put it to a hard test.

IT FLOATS.

The Outlook

Published Weekly

Vol. 73 March 7, 1903 No. 10

Vacation Experiences: Announcement of Prizes

The Editors of The Outlook have been very much gratified at the interest shown in the Prize Competition for the best account of vacation experiences written by subscribers or members of their families, and illustrated with original photographs, drawings, or sketches. Omitting a few articles which did not comply with the conditions of the contest as announced, there were received altogether one hundred and eighty articles. Manuscripts came from India, Persia, Germany, France, England, Hawaii, the Philippines, and Canada, and from nearly all the States and Territories of the United States. In deciding upon those which seemed most worthy of the prizes there was, naturally, some hesitation because of the necessity of judging upon the merits of both articles and pictures. In not a few cases pictures of very high merit accompanied distinctly inferior articles, and vice versa. The names of competitors were not known to the Committee. By the final decision reached, the First Prize of One Hundred Dollars is awarded to Miss Jane B. Reid, 227 East 18th Street, New York, for the article entitled "A Sketcher's Vacation in Shottery;" the Second Prize of Seventy-five Dollars is awarded to Mr. Isaac Ogden Rankin, Peekskill, N. Y., for the article entitled "The Lure of the Sea;" and the Third Prize of Fifty Dollars to Miss Vida D. Scudder, 350 Otis Street, West Newton, Mass., for the article entitled "Footprints of St. Francis."

The Committee also name as worthy of honorary mention, for the merits either of the article or the pictures, or both, those sent in by Mr. Norton Adams Kent, Yerkes Observatory, Williams Bay, Wis.; Mr. Willis Bardwell, 60 Cambridge Place, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mrs. T. E. Stutson, Fountain Street, West Newton, Mass.; and Mr. Cullen Bryant Snell, 24 Chadwick Street, Bradford, Mass.

The President and the South With the directness and frankness in meeting criticism which have always characterized him, President Roosevelt has written a letter to the editor of the "Atlanta Constitution," Mr. Clay Howell, in which the President's position in regard to Federal appointments of negroes in the South is fully stated. The position taken is that ascribed to him a few weeks ago in The Outlook, in an editorial entitled "The President and the South." Mr. Roosevelt declares that in making appointments he has always sought to consider the feelings of the people of each territory, so far as he could consistently do so without sacrificing liberty:

> The prime tests I have applied have been those of character, fitness, and ability, and when I have been dissatisfied with what has been offered me in my own party lines I have without hesitation gone to the opposite party.

And he adds:

> I certainly cannot treat mere color as a bar to holding office, any more than I could so treat creed or birthplace—always providing that in other respects the applicant or incumbent is a worthy and well-behaved American citizen. Just as little will I treat it as conferring a right to hold office.

Mr. Roosevelt emphatically denies that the recent appointments in Charleston and Savannah, or his action in upholding the law at Indianola, have anything whatever to do with such questions as the social equality of the negro, or "negro domination." As was shown in the editorial to which we have referred, Mr. Roosevelt has appointed white office-holders to succeed colored office-holders quite as often as he has done the reverse, and the number of his appointments of colored men is less than that under the administration of Mr. McKinley. In fact, as he tells us now, the proportion of colored men among the new appointees is only about one in a hundred. It is not surprising, in view of these facts, that the President declares himself to be surprised and somewhat pained at what seems to him the "incomprehensible outcry in the South about my actions," but he shows very plainly that his course in this method has been dictated throughout by what seem to him essential principles of justice, and he declares that he does not propose to swerve one hair's-breadth from this course in the future. We do not see how he can, if he is to be consistent with the essential principles of justice, with the repeatedly affirmed declarations of the Republican party, and with his own essential character and lifelong course.

❀

The Statehood Bill Sidetracked The Omnibus Statehood Bill was definitely defeated last week. While the bill commanded a numerical majority of the Senate, the opposition to it was more insistent than its support, and more ready to assume the responsibility of an extra session by keeping the bill before the Senate to the exclusion of other measures. Party discipline also aided the opposition. Nearly two-thirds of the present Senate is Republican, and the Republican party is manifestly responsible for legislation. The fact that about two-thirds of the Republican Senators opposed the Statehood Bill, therefore, made the Republican minority favoring it anxious to reach a compromise with their party colleagues. Such a compromise was reached last week. By its terms the Republican Senators at the next session of Congress are to bring in and pass a bill for the admission of two States instead of three—Arizona and New Mexico being joined together in a single State until the section now known as Arizona has a population of three hundred thousand and the people of both sections assent to division. To the Democrats this compromise was unacceptable for party reasons, as the present overwhelming Republican majority in New Mexico would overcome the small Democratic majority in Arizona and make the new State Republican. They also urged that the proposed single State would be of unwieldy size—joining districts as remote from each other as Maine and Indiana—and that the union of the two Territories was unsatisfactory to the people now resident in them. This Democratic opposition, of course, made impossible the immediate passage of the compromise Statehood Bill, and Senator Quay stood ready to pass his original measure as a rider on one of the appropriation bills. The Democratic Senators, however, after some consultation, decided not to lend their support to this objectionable method of securing legislation. On Saturday of last week three Democratic

Senators—Bacon, Martin, and Tillman—voted with thirty-nine Republicans to set aside the Statehood Bill in favor of the Aldrich Currency Bill. Only Senator Quay and seventeen Democrats voted against this disposition of the measure.

❀

The Currency Bills The Aldrich Currency Bill is thus given the right of way in the Senate. It may add in the neighborhood of one hundred million dollars to the currency of the country. This bill, it will be recalled, allows the National banks, with which Government money is deposited, to secure these deposits by means of State, county, city, and railroad bonds. By the present law the banks receiving these deposits must give Government bonds as security, and at the present time one hundred and twenty-five millions of Government bonds are now in the Treasury as security for these deposits. By allowing the banks to substitute other bonds they may use their Government bonds as the basis for issuing an additional one hundred and twenty-five millions of bank notes. The fact that the Aldrich bill requires the banks receiving Government deposits hereafter to pay one and one-half per cent. interest upon them, instead of receiving them without interest as at present, makes the bill exceptionally satisfactory to the Democrats—though Senator Bailey, of Texas, has broken with his party colleagues by championing the request of the bankers in various sections that no interest be required of them. The chief objection urged against the Aldrich bill is that it permits railroad bonds, as well as public bonds, to be used to secure deposits, and excludes the public bonds of new counties and small cities from such use. In the House of Representatives Chairman Fowler, of the Committee on Banking and Currency, has amended his bill so as to permit National banks to receive public deposits up to seventy-five per cent. of their capital without giving any security, and he would require the banks henceforth to pay two per cent. interest on their Government deposits. It is not likely, however, that his bill can be accepted, as the Republicans are not united for it and the Democrats will fight relentlessly against his original and main proposal to allow banks to issue currency based on their assets and unsecured by Government bonds. In this opposition The Outlook heartily agrees. No supposed advantage from a larger or a more flexible currency can countervail the disadvantages of a currency less secure, in all times of panic as well as of prosperity, than our present currency. The Aldrich bill provides for a great expansion of the currency without altering the basis of issue. All of our currency will still be guaranteed by the Government.

❀

Legislation Impeded in Both Houses Hardly was the Statehood Bill out of the way in the Senate before legislation was obstructed by a party wrangle in the House. The occasion of the House dispute was the attempt of the Republican majority to unseat in the last fortnight of the session a Democratic member from St. Louis, Mo., who had a majority of over three thousand votes on the face of the returns. Although there were evidences of corruption sufficient to vitiate the whole election, the Democrats denounced the attempt to seat the contesting Republican at the close of the session as a deliberate "theft" of ten thousand dollars from the public treasury, and left the chamber so as to break up a quorum. Undeterred by these tactics, the Republicans seated their man, apparently going somewhat further than Speaker Reed in their methods of counting a quorum. The Democrats thereupon began to carry out their threat to filibuster against further legislation if their member was unseated, and proceeded to make every dilatory motion permissible under the House rules. These, however, as a natural consequence, were further amended so as to enable the majority to do business, and the net outcome seems to be a further diminution of the already attenuated privileges of the minority in the House. The prospects, as we go to press, are that the appropriation bills will pass both houses of Congress at this session, and also the Immigration Restriction Bill, but little other legislation is probable. Even the Immigration Bill has been rendered practically worthless by the insistence of Senator Elkins and a few others that the educational test be dropped. Senator

Fairbanks, of Indiana, openly asserted that Senator Elkins's obstruction was due to his determination to get cheap labor of whatever quality for the mines and railroads of his State. The hope of passing the Panama Canal Treaty at this session is practically dead, as Senator Morgan is willing to take the responsibility of defeating it, and Senator Rawlins, of Utah, and Dubois, of Idaho, who are openly opposed to the construction of any canal to divert traffic from their States, are supporting him in prolonging the debate. The probabilities are that President Roosevelt will call an extra session of the Senate immediately upon the adjournment of Congress, to secure action upon both the Panama and Cuban treaties.

The Anti-Lottery Decision

The Sepreme Court of the United States has decided that Congress has a right under the Constitution to prohibit the carriage of lottery tickets by express companies from one State to another. Congress first prohibited the use of the mails for this purpose. Then the express companies were used, and the lottery tickets continued to be sold and sent throughout the Union. Then Congress enacted a law prohibiting all sending of lottery tickets from one State to another. A Mr. Champion was in Chicago, representing what was known as the Pan-American Lottery of Paraguay. He was arrested on the charge of delivering a box of lottery tickets to the Wells-Fargo Express Company in Texas for shipment to California. He was arrested in Chicago to be taken to Texas, but sued out a writ of habeas corpus, which the Federal Circuit Court sitting in Chicago refused to grant. He appealed from that decision to the Supreme Court, and it is this appeal which has now been decided adversely to him. The case has been three times argued before the Court, the lottery and express companies being represented by ex-Senator George F. Edmunds, ex-Secretary John G. Carlisle, James C. Carter, and William D. Guthrie, of the New York bar. Assistant Attorney-General James M. Beck represented the Government. It cannot, therefore, be doubted that the question has been very thoroughly considered. It is conceded that under the Constitution Congress has no police power to prohibit lotteries in the States; the question was whether, under the clause of the Constitution giving Congress power over inter-State commerce, it had a right to prohibit such commerce in lottery tickets. The Court decided, by a vote of five to four, that it had such power. The opinion of the Court was presented by Mr. Justice Harlan; the dissenting opinion by Chief Justice Fuller.

The Significance of This Decision

The direct importance of this decision is very considerable. It puts an end, probably forever, to all general lottery business, though it still leaves open the door to quasi-lotteries, such as gift enterprises and guessing contests. Its indirect importance is possibly even greater. It is thought in certain circles to sustain the contention of Attorney-General Knox that Congress can prohibit commerce in all trust-made articles, and can thus indirectly strike at monopolies which it cannot directly prohibit. No doubt it gives a basis of hope for such a decision to those who agree with Attorney-General Knox; but this is all that can be said. A decision of a court decides nothing beyond the principle *necessarily* involved in the case before the court. The line which divides the decision of a court from the opinion of the judge or judges delivering the decision has been thus defined by the Supreme Court itself: "It is a maxim not to be disregarded that general expressions in every opinion are to be taken in connection with the case in which those expressions are used. If they go beyond the case, they may be respected, but ought not to control the judgment in a subsequent case when the very point is presented." In this case the Court does not decide that Congress may determine, without qualification, for what purposes the instruments of inter-State commerce may be used; it simply decides that it may prohibit their use for purposes which it regards as immoral. The point decided is thus clearly and definitely stated by Mr. Justice Harlan:

> The whole subject is too important, and the questions suggested by its consideration are too difficult of solution, to justify any attempt

> to lay down a rule for determining in advance the validity of every statute that may be enacted under the commerce clause. We decide nothing more in the present case than that lottery tickets are subjects of traffic among those who choose to sell or buy them; that the carriage of such tickets by independent carriers from one State to another is, therefore, inter-State commerce; that under its power to regulate commerce among the several States, Congress—subject to the limitations imposed by the Constitution upon the exercise of the powers granted—has plenary authority over such commerce, and may prohibit the carriage of such tickets from State to State; that legislation to that end and of that character is not inconsistent with any limitation or restriction imposed upon the exercise of the powers granted to Congress.

All, therefore, that can be said is that the decision looks in the direction of very large powers of Congress over the subject of inter-State commerce. It indicates a probability that the Supreme Court will decide, whenever the question is presented, that Congress may prohibit the use of inter-State commerce for any articles so controlled that the conditions of their sale are oppressive and work injustice to the people; but this has not been so decided as yet.

⁂

Municipal Railways in Great Britain

The National Convention on Municipal Ownership held in New York City last week under the auspices of the Reform Club had a good deal of the character of a national convention for municipal ownership. This was no part of the plan of the meeting, which provided for the bi-partisan discussion of each phase of municipal business activity under consideration; it was due to the fact that the audience which gathered and those speakers who were not definitely secured to oppose municipal ownership were remarkably favorable to its extension. At the first day's sessions the most interesting discussion was that upon the public ownership of street railways. The affirmative side of this question was presented by Mr. Charles R. Bellamy, the General Manager of the Municipal Street Railways of Liverpool, who had come to this country to attend the conference. In his introduction Mr. Bellamy said that the criticisms of English municipal enterprise came chiefly from Americans. In Liverpool, he said, results had demonstrated the wisdom of the change from the private to the public ownership of street railways. It had taken place in 1897, because of public dissatisfaction with the private company, whose lease had still several years to run. The city was compelled to pay nearly three million dollars for the horse traction plant, which it discarded, and it provided a new electric plant with a much greater mileage for six million dollars additional. It reduced fares nearly one-half—making the rate two cents within the old city and four cents if the ride extended to the suburbs. It increased the pay of the workmen, giving them a ten-hour day instead of a thirteen-hour day. The gain to the employees last year through the changes made in their favor was $200,000; the gain to the traveling public through lower fares was $1,600,000; and yet, despite these concessions, the municipal railway had gross profits equal to $855,000, or nine and one-half per cent. on the total investment. This not only provided for interest payments and sinking fund payments sufficient to extinguish the debt in twenty-five years, but left a balance of over $300,000, which was in part set aside as a general reserve fund and in part used to the relief of local taxes. This paper read by Mr. Bellamy was followed by one forwarded by Mr. Charles T. Yerkes, of Chicago, declaring municipal transportation a failure in England and urging in general terms that it was "ridiculous to think that a municipality could run a railroad economically or wisely," because the people as a whole know nothing about railroads. The argument was not suited to the temper of the audience, which evidently believed that in the management of public franchises, as well as of other public affairs, the people could select agents capable of rendering satisfactory service.

⁂

Municipal Railways in America

In America the municipal operation of street railroads has had no important trial—except the highly successful one in connection with the Brooklyn Bridge—but municipal ownership is now on trial in the new subway system of New York, which is merely leased to the constructing and operating company. Mr. Edward M. Shepard, of the New York Rapid Transit Commission, gave the Convention a most interesting account of the history of the leasing of the New York and Brooklyn routes. The New York statute, he recalled, forbade the city to furnish the money for the construction of the system unless a responsible private company would lease the roads for fifty years at a rental sufficient to pay the interest on the bonds issued and pay off their principal by the end of the term. When the Commission, he said, went to Mr. Vanderbilt, Mr. Whitney, Mr. Gould, and Mr. Clark (the President of the New Haven road), all of these railroad experts treated with the utmost contempt the suggestion that the subway could be made financially profitable. It was a distinct public triumph, therefore, when the Commission found a responsible contractor willing to accept the terms required by the statute. Yet so great has been the advance in the prestige of rapid transit enterprises during the past few years that when the Commission wished to construct the Brooklyn route, a responsible bidder was willing to do the work for less than one-fourth of the engineer's estimate in order to get a lease limited to thirty-five years. Mr. Shepard believed that in future contracts the term of the lease could be reduced ten or fifteen years more and still find acceptance by responsible contractors who would pay the interest on the bonds and hand the road over to the city free of debt at the end of the lease.

❀

Other Municipal Enterprises

After municipal transportation, municipal lighting was discussed, and this discussion brought out the statement of President Ingram, of the Detroit Electric Lighting Commission, that the initial success of the municipal plant had been exceeded with each succeeding year. Last year the average cost per street light (including a liberal estimate for loss of taxes through city ownership) was only $64, as against $132 in 1897 under the last contract with a private company. In the discussion of municipal telephones, Mr. Bethell, the General Manager of the Bell system in New York City, made a convincing statement as to the general superiority of privately owned telephone systems in America to the publicly owned systems of Europe, but Professor Parsons put in an equally conclusive way the general superiority of the publicly owned systems abroad to the privately owned systems abroad. As to this country, Professor Parsons's figures to show the possibilities of municipal ownership were based upon the remarkably low rates established in Rochester, N. Y., and many Western cities by companies competing with the Bell system. The one field in which there was no argument for private ownership was that of water supply. In some respects the most remarkable paper of the Convention was that of ex-President Hill, of the American Water Works Association, describing the recent substitution of a public system for a private system in Syracuse, N. Y., and the lower water rates, lower insurance rates, and lower death rates which have followed. Ex-President Hill's paper was the best answer given to the conservative aphorism of Mr. August Lewis, near the opening of the Convention, that if American municipalities would be "faithful over a few things," he was willing to make them "ruler over many things."

❀

Law Enforcement in West Virginia

The most serious of recent strike riots took place last week in the New River coal mining district of West Virginia. The strike in the district had practically failed, but the new men were the subjects of intimidation on the part of the strikers whose places they had taken. Saturday before last a Federal marshal who attempted to serve a blanket injunction against the strikers was ordered out of the district by armed miners, and the county sheriff, who attempted to make arrests for violations of State law, was treated in a similar way. Returning to Charleston, the Federal marshal was instructed to serve his processes at all hazards, and the sheriff met the resistance offered him in the same determined spirit. The two joined forces, and, with a hundred deputies at their command, surprised a camp of strikers. A conflict took place, in which three of the strikers were killed outright, two others mortally wounded, and sixty-three taken prisoners by the sheriff and ten more by the marshal. According to the reports, the State as well as the Federal authorities are determined to secure the speedy trial of the arrested men, and the execution of the law upon all violators. The State of West Virginia is to be congratulated on having, apparently both in its State officers and its Federal officers, men of resolute purpose and unflinching courage. Whether the injunction issued by the Judge was right or wrong, just or unjust, it is wholly immaterial to inquire. This decision was the law of the land until it was reversed by peaceful proceedings. It was the duty of all good citizens to obey it. When men leagued themselves together to prevent obedience and to protect from arrest the men who had disobeyed, they became to that extent rebels against the Government of the State and of the United States. Every such act of rebellion ought to be put down with a strong hand. The country has been altogether too patient with or too indifferent toward such acts of rebellion. In a Republic like ours, it is the duty of every citizen to submit to the law until by peaceful process he can accomplish a change in the law. Violent resistance to law is justifiable only under conditions which justify a revolution—that is, the overthrow of the government. Does any reader ask, What, then, becomes of the doctrine of the Higher Law, of which so much was made in 1850–1860? The answer is very plain. If law inflicts on the individual injustice, he is to submit to the injustice; if it requires him to do an act of injustice, he is to refuse, and is to submit to the penalty. In either case he is to submit, and if he declines to do so voluntarily, then all the resources of the government must, if necessary, be called into requisition to compel his submission involuntarily. The sooner mob rioters learn this lesson the better, not only for the rest of the community, but also for the rioters themselves.

❀

The National Guard and Trades-Unions We are glad to report that in the case of William Potter, of Schenectady, the local Painters' Union has been persuaded by the officers of the International Painters' Union to reinstate Potter, who will remain a member of the militia also; the boycott against Potter's employers will be removed. But this is no reason for not pushing forward to a vote the bill pending in the Legislature of New York, providing imprisonment and fine for any person or association that shall discriminate against a member of the National Guard for the purpose of preventing him from securing employment. This bill has been opposed by some representatives of labor unions on the ground that the bill, if enacted, would make it possible for non-union laborers to join the National Guard and then compel union laborers to work with them. From the point of view of the general public, this is not a very serious objection to the bill. The right of union men to prohibit non-union men from working with them is very dubious. Still, a law ought not to attempt to secure by indirection what it does not attempt to secure directly, and if the Hughes bill is so framed that no member of the National Guard can be discharged from his Union or from employment, its phraseology ought to be changed. The fact that a man is a member of the National Guard is not of itself ground for keeping him either in a shop or a Union; but the State ought not to permit him to be discharged from the shop merely because he is a member of the Guard. The principles involved seem to us very clear and very simple, though there may be some difficulty in giving them adequate expression in legal enactment. They are as follows: Any Association has a right to determine the conditions of membership within the Association, providing those conditions are not immoral. A Quaker meeting has a right to excommunicate a man for joining the army; on the same principle the Union has a right to exclude a man for joining the National Guard. But no organization has a right to exclude, or endeavor to exclude, a man from employment because he has joined the National Guard and taken up arms for the protection of persons and property either from domestic violence or foreign foes. There is no evidence, so far as the public knows, that the Guard in this or in other States has been used for illegal purposes, or to aid capitalists or employers against labor unions, or to coerce men into work which they do not wish to undertake, or to shoot down unarmed and innocent persons. These charges, though made, seem to us so preposterous as not to require refutation. Certainly no evidence has been given in support of them. The National Guard has simply been employed to protect persons and property against violence. This Legislature ought not to adjourn until it has done whatever may be necessary to protect the right of the State to have a militia, and the right of the militia to earn an honest livelihood.

❀

A Bad Bill A bill has been introduced into the State Legislature by Senator Barnes, of Albany, and Assemblyman Morgan, of Brooklyn, providing for abolishing the State Reformatory for women at Bedford, N. Y., and the conversion of the buildings into a hospital for the insane. Prior to the establishment of this Reformatory the women were being constantly arrested and fined, or given short sentences in the district prison, jail, or workhouse, where they were associated with those older in years and crime. In these prisons no reformatory methods were in use, and upon dismissal they easily fell victims to the dive-keepers. It was to separate them from the older criminals, to place them in a different environment, to educate and train them in industries which would render them self-supporting in after life, that the plan of this Reformatory was conceived. It took nine years of unceasing effort to secure the passage of the bill, and nine more passed before the institution was ready for occupancy. It was finally opened in May of 1901, and now, after the expiration of twenty months, has a census of 197 women, a large proportion of whom give promise of becoming law-abiding citizens. A number are already out on parole, and thus far have proved themselves worthy to be trusted. Commissions sent from Connecticut and New Jersey to visit the various Reformatories of the Eastern States found the methods employed at Bedford superior to those elsewhere, and have taken it for their model. It is difficult for us to understand why Mr. Barnes should have introduced a bill to abolish this Reformatory, or why any Senator or Assemblyman should vote for it. We appeal to all members of the Legislature to refuse it their support until they have become acquainted with the history of the Reformatory; if they do become acquainted with its history and work, they will not consent to its abolition.

Tenement-House Reform in Manhattan and Brooklyn Every week, since the introduction into the New York Legislature of the bills devised to weaken the present legal requirements concerning tenement-houses, has seen the protest against these bills become more vehement. This protest, too, is coming from those whose very lives will be imperiled by a relaxing of the present law. An organization of janitors on the East Side of Manhattan has unanimously declared that the present law has made it easier to keep the tenements clean and wholesome and that the proposed bills would, if enacted, undo the reform so far achieved. These janitors know what they speak of; they not only live in the tenements, but they know from the nature of their business the difficulties involved in tenement-house life. In Brooklyn, people who want this question decided on a basis not of mere dollars and cents have found in Dr. Newell Dwight Hillis an able and eloquent spokesman. His statement is the most cogent and pertinent we have seen concerning the bearing of these amendments upon Brooklyn. The following, which we quote from the address, puts the issue as it especially affects that borough:

> There is one provision in the proposed law that appeals to every citizen of Brooklyn. It is proposed to leave the law that safeguards the tenement-houses of New York, but to legalize the bad features of the tenement-house for Brooklyn. It is said that landlords will then be able to build tenement-houses that will rent for $7 a month. Rents in New York will be higher. The ignorant, the weak, sometimes the vicious, will come to Brooklyn as a consequence. London learned years ago what Brooklyn will learn if this new law passes. London permitted certain cheap tenement-houses in an exempt region, and it was the home of ignorance, filth, squalor, and vice. There are a hundred old houses near Fulton Ferry, in Furman Street, and on the edge of Brooklyn Heights, that the householders on the Heights could afford to burn down, in the certainty that their own property would be enhanced in value sufficiently to pay the cost and derive a higher gain. For one, I believe that those who have supported this new law have done so without the full realization of the risks that are involved.

Do the people of Brooklyn want a law which will allow brownstone fronts to be turned at the will of the landlord into five-family tenements, and the slums driven out of the Borough of Manhattan to be welcomed with open arms to the Borough of Brooklyn? To this question they ought to give a prompt and explicit answer.

The Typhoid Epidemic at Ithaca

The outbreak of typhoid fever during February at Ithaca, the seat of Cornell University, has been the subject of many sensational reports. Ithaca consists of plateau, slope, and flats, through which flow three streams into Cayuga Lake. They are named respectively Fall, Cascadilla, and Six Mile Creek, the latter supplying the city water-mains. There are no dormitories on the campus, and the male students board in the city. Hence it has been impossible for the University authorities to exercise hygienic control. The long-agitated question of securing sufficient and pure water was complicated by the question of private or municipal ownership of the works. Six Mile Creek drains a valley fringed with dwellings, but hitherto the inspectors of the city Board of Health had no control of the area of supply or the elements making for contamination, nor had the water been dangerous. Indeed, Ithaca was noted for its salubriousness. In October, however, the water company imported gangs of Italians and Huns to build a dam for water storage. Early in January it was reported that among these strangers, who were about leaving, typhoid fever had broken out. This attracted little or no attention, especially as the dam was abandoned and the laborers had left. Late in the same month, immediately after an inundation, a hundred cases of "low" fever were reported, and soon the typhoid epidemic was revealed. The University infirmary and the city hospital were at once crowded. For the most part those most poorly fed or least careful of themselves were struck down first, and all were drinkers of Six Mile Creek water; no case was known on the campus, fed from Fall Creek, or among those drinking well-water, or even boiled water from Six Mile Creek. In reality, as the five weeks' experience shows, those who have applied science and boiled their water have been immune. Science teaches that typhoid fever "enters by the mouth" only. Public-spirited men and women both inside and outside of the University summoned physicians and nurses, provided comfortable quarters, bored artesian wells to furnish free drinking-water, and pledged the boarding-house keepers to vigilance and care in using only boiled water. The masterful energy with which President Schurman and the trustees coped with the situation is worthy of all praise. A new filtration plant costing $150,000 to be built with money loaned by the University, and rigid inspection by the city Board of Health—now clothed with State powers—will secure a speedy and permanent supply of pure water. The outcome for the University will probably be seen before long in campus dormitories, securing hygienic supervision. The epidemic is now thought to be under control and abating, and the mortality is below the average. Of the eighty or more cases among the students, who relatively have suffered most, twelve have died. Surely this incident points not only the moral of hygiene, but also of social science. As a living commentary on the truth that "no man liveth unto himself," it could hardly be excelled. In a city famous for learning and beautiful for situation, even while the people were boastful of healthy conditions, the neglect of the stranger within the gates brought calamity.

The Methodist Mass-Meeting in New York

This year marks the bicentenary of the birth of John Wesley. Although the anniversary occurs on June 28, the Methodists of New York City have already celebrated the event by a great mass-meeting in Carnegie Hall. The day set, February 26, was chosen to suit the convenience of President Roosevelt, who was invited to make the principal address. Although the meeting was held under the auspices of the New York Thank-Offering Commission of the Methodists, having in charge the project of raising one million dollars with which to pay certain mortgages and debts and to endow certain philanthropic enterprises, no appeal for money was made at the meeting, unless a statement printed on the programme could be so termed. In its stead, eulogy of John Wesley and the interpretation of the religious movement which he inspired occupied the attention of the speakers and the audience. In introducing President Roosevelt the Chairman of the meeting asserted that the

Methodist Church, especially in the West, not only "converts men to the knowledge of the Saviour" and makes "good Methodists," but also is making "good Republicans." Though this is an undoubted fact—for the Methodist Church has not yet outgrown the traditions of anti-slavery times—President Roosevelt courteously but unmistakably protested that he came to address the people there assembled, not as representatives of a party, but as fellow-Americans; and this protest was greeted with a genuine burst of applause. The President's speech was a brief but illuminating statement of the historic force which Methodism has been in the development of America. He characteristically lauded the positive and aggressive virtues of the missionary preachers who gave impulse and guidance to the growth of the West. His address was thus not only a tribute to Methodism, but also a plea for the stalwart kind of Christianity which has made Methodism effective. Chancellor Day, of Syracuse University, who followed President Roosevelt, made a very significant address, the burden of which was the exaltation of the spirit of progress. The danger to Methodists, he declared, was "in trying to insist upon holding on to old forms." He applied this to scientific study and Biblical scholarship, to ecclesiastical methods, and to regulations of moral conduct. Bishop Andrews's historical survey, in the closing address, was in harmony with these principles. No intelligent hearer could have failed to perceive the bearing these two addresses had upon issues with which the Methodist Episcopal Church has recently been dealing.

⁂

Missionary Dangers in China

During the past month disquieting information has come from the province of Szechuan in western China, the provinces of Kansu and Shensi in the north, the province of Chekiang in the east, and the provinces of Kuangtung and Kuangsi in the south. In each of these provinces there has been a recrudescence of anti-Christian and anti-missionary feeling. In the far west Boxer emissaries have been leading a crusade against foreigners and against Christians, calumniating them as they did before the rebellion of 1900 by the same absurd stories of the desecration of graves and the killing of young children by missionaries. In the northwest General Tung is arming and drilling ten thousand soldiers and buying large quantities of grain and fodder for horses. The provincial military commander seems to be powerless to prevent this assembling of so large a force; indeed, his own army of four thousand men is said to have joined the insurgents. Rumors obtain that Tung is really acting under the authority of the Empress Dowager, although she refuses openly to countenance him. The feeling in Shensi, a province where the prejudices of centuries still survive in nearly all their original force, is so threatening that officials friendly to the foreign missionaries are advising them to leave at once before the trouble comes to a head. In Chekiang a secret society called the Pichu Chiao has made an armed demonstration against some of the Roman Catholic converts, and the provincial troops have been unable to control the situation. Reinforcements have been sent from Hangchau, the capital, to put down this quasi-religious propaganda of ignorant people, which has now developed into a general plundering expedition. The inhabitants of an entire prefecture have been indiscriminately pillaged, their houses as well as the churches, chapels, and houses of converts being ruthlessly burned. The roads leading to Hangchau have been full of men, women, and children fleeing thither for refuge. The insurgents, according to the North China "Daily News," muster about twenty thousand adults. In many places in the province anti-religious placards have been posted calling on the masses to rise and resist the insurgents. Along the Yangtse there is a growing bitterness, and the British Consul at Hankau has advised missionaries within his jurisdiction to leave their outlying stations and go into the city. Finally, in the south, the French-fomented insurrection has not been put down, although the Imperial forces have been able to keep it from making very notable progress during recent weeks. The nature of the risings in these widely separated parts of China would seem to point to some central disorganizing force. Attentive observers on the ground incline to the opinion that the revolts are being secretly directed by one man, Jung-Lu, a prime favorite of the Empress. In view of the return of some danger to our missionaries, unusual attention will be paid to the announcement of the Conference of Foreign Mission Boards in the United States and Canada of a week of prayer for missions. The time selected is, appropriately enough, Holy Week. The period which ends with Easter Sunday is indeed a proper time for simultaneous prayer on behalf of missions.

⁂

Mr. Balfour's Victory Last week Mr. Balfour, British Prime Minister, gained a notable parliamentary victory. His War Minister, Mr. Brodrick, had been severely criticised in Parliament, without respect to party affiliation, on account of his so-called "inept army scheme." By Mr. Brodrick's plan of army reform, as first proposed, at a cost of $5,000,000 extra to Great Britain and $4,000,000 to India, it was expected that fifty thousand recruits would be secured yearly; also a reserve of over one hundred and seventy thousand men. The scheme also embodied proposals for the formation of reserves of volunteers, yeomanry, and militia. Six army corps were planned, the result of which, in Mr. Brodrick's words, would be to make an army "for the first time in the memory of man above its supposed full strength in every branch except the infantry." Mr. Brodrick's critics in general, and Mr. Winston Churchill in particular, declared the army corps scheme to be a "sham" and only introduced with the object of militarizing England. Mr. Churchill, indeed, who resembles his late father, Lord Randolph Churchill, in an entire freedom from bashfulness, in a certain picturesqueness in expression, and in a decided independence of conduct, took his position largely on the ground of economy, an issue which reminds one of the issue which led to Lord Randolph's abandonment of office in one of Lord Salisbury's Cabinets. Mr. Brodrick's defense showed little art in covering the weak points of the reorganization scheme, but he made good use of the facts respecting the increase in recruiting and the militia and yeomanry reserves. The Prime Minister, in closing the debate, indicated that the success of the vote of censure would mean not only Mr. Brodrick's fall, but the Government's. Of course, said Mr. Balfour, the British fleet stood first as defense, but there were limits to the uses of a fleet. It was impossible to bring a war to an end with a fleet which could not even strike a heavy blow at most enemies with which Great Britain might be engaged without strong attacking forces of soldiers, and it would be folly to deprive the country of the means of offensive action in an emergency. Mr. Balfour then showed that the proposed army corps were necessary for work outside the Empire; and so effectively that, when the division was taken in an excited house, the amendment was rejected by a vote of 261 to 145. Once again Mr. Balfour has shown himself equal to the situation.

⁂

The Tariff on Books The recent ruling of the Treasury Department changing the basis of the import duty on books has given rise to a great deal of discussion and protest, and Mr. George P. Brett, of the Macmillan Company, has made a forcible plea for the abolition of the duty on books. He says, in brief, that while a duty on books may have been needed in the early development of our country for the purposes of revenue, for the protection of certain trades, or to foster original work from native writers, the necessity for such duty no longer exists. So far as the question of revenue is concerned, the duty on books is so small in comparison with the cost of collection that, in Mr. Brett's opinion, if exact statistics were obtainable, it would be found that it exceeded the amount of the duty collected. So far as printing and other allied trades are concerned, there is no longer any necessity for protection, because these industries are so firmly established that they need no help. As a matter of fact, the great printing establishments in this country are now unable to meet the demands for work which are laid upon them. Least of all does our native literature stand in need of any artificial protection by the imposition of what has been called "a tax on knowledge." Under the beneficent operation of the International Copyright Act, American authors have profited much more than foreign authors; and American books are not only read far more widely than ever before in the history of the country, but they are being exported in great and rapidly increasing numbers. The figures which Mr. Brett has collected with reference to the importation and exportation of books are extremely significant. The imports of books into the United States in 1899 were a little less than $1,500,000; in 1900, $1,600,000; in 1901, $1,700,000; while for the eleven months of the year 1902 ending with November they were a little over $1,600,000. The export of books from the United States in 1899 amounted to $2,700,000, and in 1902 they amounted to $4,364,000—an increase of nearly 150 per cent. Whether the Treasury ruling, which has materially advanced the duty on English books by changing their valuation, is wise or unwise, the time has evidently come for removing a tax for which there no longer exists any justification.

❀

Compromise in Delaware

The Senatorial deadlock in Delaware was broken last Monday afternoon by the election to the United States Senate of J. Frank Allee, Addicks Republican, and Dr. L. H. Ball, anti-Addicks Republican. Senator Allee was elected for the long term, which runs until 1907, and Dr. Ball fills the short term, expiring in 1905. The compromise between the Addicks and the anti-Addicks forces which has resulted in this election was brought about largely through the influence of National Republican officials at Washington. Congressman Dick, Secretary of the Republican National Committee, personally visited Dover, and is believed to have urged the compromise under instructions from Senator Hanna, Chairman of the Republican National Committee.

For the moment Addicks has been beaten and has been compelled to yield to the force of public opinion in Delaware. Dr. Ball's election is a victory for those who have been so long and so courageously fighting Addicks and the powers at his command. On the other hand, the election of Senator Allee is only one step removed from that of Addicks himself. Senator Allee is reputed to have made money through his alliance with Addicks in speculative and corporate enterprises, and he is known throughout the State as "Addicks's man." He will represent in the United States Senate, not the State of Delaware, but his employer. We do not think it probable that he will resign in order to give his place to Addicks by possible gubernatorial appointment; but since his election he has said, "I certainly regret that I have to fill the place that 'belongs' to Mr. Addicks." Addicks, already forgetting the futility of previous mandates and statements issued by him, is now saying that he proposes "to help elect a majority of the Legislature in 1904 favorable to my candidacy for the United States Senate." The methods that he will probably employ to accomplish this purpose are a matter of common notoriety, not only to Delaware, but to the country at large. In the meantime we congratulate the honest citizens of the State that they will have in Senator Ball a representative on whom we believe they can count for efficient aid in the fight which they must continue with renewed resolution and vigor against Addicks and his corrupt methods.

❀

The Beecher Memorial

The movement initiated by Dr. Hillis, the pastor of Plymouth Church, Brooklyn, to erect a memorial to Henry Ward Beecher, in connection with that church, has reached such a stage that on next Sunday, March 8, the sixteenth anniversary of Mr. Beecher's death, a meeting is to be held in the Academy of Music, in Brooklyn, to present more fully the plans. This movement has already attracted National attention; to its indorsement and support a number of eminent men in different parts of the country have readily lent their names, including President Roosevelt and ex-President Cleveland; the popular response already made to Dr. Hillis's appeal is itself a gratifying evidence of the respect and affection in which Mr. Beecher's name is held throughout the country; we hope that the financial support may be equally general, and that funds may be forthcoming adequate for a worthy memorial to one who served the Church and the Nation with unquestionable genius, unselfish devotion, and unflinching courage; and who, in the purity of his character and the consecration of his life to God and humanity, was greater than the work he wrought.

Sufficient time has elapsed since Mr.

Beecher's death to make possible a just estimate of the man and his achievements. The present generation is not dazzled by the brilliance of his genius, nor is its vision of him obscured by the smoke of the battle in which he took so prominent a part. A statue has been erected by citizens of Brooklyn to commemorate him, and stands in City Hall Park facing the court-house where he faced the traducers who would fain have destroyed his good name, which he valued more than life, a perpetual monument to their failure. A Congregational church, erected through the labors of his lifelong and loyal friend and co-laborer in Plymouth Church, the Rev. S. B. Halliday, bears his name, and contains many personal tributes to his memory from various friends. But the church which he built, in which the forty most fruitful years of his life were passed, whose platform he made a National forum, whose doors became through his ministry an entrance into the divine life of faith and hope and love, directly or indirectly, for unnumbered thousands, remains as he left it. When it was built, few if any churches in America were better equipped for the varied work of a modern city church. Now many surpass it in equipment. It is high time that those who confess their indebtedness to Mr. Beecher for spiritual services received at his hands should co-operate in the endeavor to give improved equipment to the work which he initiated, which in some sense he still inspires, and which, so long as it lasts, will be identified with his name.

Mr. Beecher's greatness conceals his greatness. The more apparent but less substantial elements of his character have veiled from the public those qualities which give his influence its permanence. His elocutionary skill, his suppleness and power in gesture, his sometimes too exuberant rhetoric, his vivid pictorial imagination, his instinct for dramatic impersonation of any character he portrayed, his irrepressible humor, his emotional power, made men forget his accuracy of observation, his wideness of general knowledge, his grasp of great principles, his insight into and understanding of the hidden currents of life, and his forecast of coming events. Other men in that epoch (1847–1887) were as brave, as outspoken, and as devoted to liberty as he; other men surpassed him in particular qualities; but we doubt whether any man equaled him in distinctively prophetic gift. In 1850, when the compromise measure was first proposed in Congress, in that famous editorial in the New York "Independent" he laid down the fundamental principles for the solution of the slavery problem—loyalty to the Constitution and the Union, frank recognition of the rights of the States, coupled with firm resolve against the extension of slavery to new States and Territories—six years before the Republican party was formed to advocate those principles, and ten years before Abraham Lincoln was elected as their representative. In 1861, when war was threatened, and many men who voted for Mr. Lincoln were ready to retreat, and Union-savers were busy hunting for a basis of compromise, and radical abolitionists were counseling that the erring sisters should be allowed to depart in peace, he preached that ever-memorable sermon on the text, "Go Forward," pointing out that secession, if acquiesced in, meant perpetual war, and compromise, if effected, meant abandonment by the Nation of free labor, free schools, free speech, everything that made the Nation sacred and great. When men on this side of the Atlantic were, not unnaturally, hot with anger against England, whose Government had gone as far as it dared to go in sympathy with and aid for the Confederate States, he recognized the unrepresented common people of Great Britain, who were at that time without either a ballot or an organ; went across the sea; braving hostile mobs, spoke both to and for the silent constituency; enlisted democratic England against feudal England, the England of the Puritan against the England of the Cavalier, the England of the plain people against the England of the aristocracy; made English intervention in the American conflict impossible; and both foresaw, foretold, and prepared for that impalpable alliance between England and America which promises in the future to give justice and liberty to the whole world. Lincoln was a greater statesman, Seward a greater politician, Charles Francis Adams a greater diplomat, Charles Sumner a greater scholar; but no man of his time so nearly resembled the old

Hebrew prophets as Henry Ward Beecher; no one so truly foresaw coming events; no one had so great power to create by voice and pen the public sentiment which, in a democracy, must underlie all efficient public policies; no one had such power to give it efficient expression as he.

So true is this that to most men Mr. Beecher is known chiefly as a reformer. But he was not chiefly a reformer; he was chiefly a Christian minister, a preacher of the Glad Tidings of Jesus Christ. Under his ministry, Plymouth Church grew in those forty years from a membership of twenty-one to a membership of over twenty-five hundred. Under his ministry nearly or quite three thousand learned in that church of the love of God and pledged their lives in loyal service to him; how many received a new life indirectly through his printed sermons no census can ever disclose. For, great as was his direct influence, his indirect influence was far greater. Mr. Beecher was not a musician, yet no musician of his time did more than Mr. Beecher to change the character and habit of church music in America. He was not a theologian; yet no theologian of his time did more than he to change the current conception of God in the Puritan churches, from that of a Moral Governor to that of a Father. He was not an evangelist; yet, excepting Dwight L. Moody, no evangelist of his time brought more men than did he to a knowledge of God as the Father of men through a knowledge of Jesus Christ as the Friend of sinners. This was his great work; this his passion; to this he gave himself with an ever-consuming, an ever-unsatisfied, desire. All that he knew of art or literature or music or history or life was made tributary to this one end. All that he did in social reform, in temperance, in the anti-slavery cause, grew out of this one dominating purpose. He was not a preacher *and* a reformer; he was a reformer because he was a preacher. In the midst of the Civil War, as he was about to sail for Europe, where presently he was to undertake that ever-memorable English mission, when he bade farewell to his people, this is what he said to them:

> Among the earliest, the deepest, and the strongest purposes of my ministry was the determination that it should be a ministry of Christ. Nothing could be further from my heart than to make this pulpit the clustering point of a number of reforms. I never would have consented to serve in a church that was merely what is called a reformatory church. I felt in my soul that all power in moral reforms must spring from a yet deeper power; and for that I struck. And I remember how, in the very beginning, night and day, without varying, through all the early months of my ministry here, I had but one feeling—to preach Christ for the awakening of men for their conversion. My desire was that this should be a revival church—a church in which the Gospel should be preached primarily and mainly for the re-creation of man's moral nature, for the bringing of Christ as a living power upon the living souls of men. My profound conviction of the fruitlessness of man without God was such that it seemed to me gardening in the great Sahara to attempt to make moral reformation in a church which was not profoundly impressed with the great spiritual truths of Christ Jesus. I have no doubt that there are many in this land who would think it an extravagant thing to hear it said that the keynote of my ministry among you had been the evangelization of the soul or the awakening of men from their sinfulness, and their conversion to the Lord Jesus Christ. It has been; and if you had taken that out of my thoughts and feelings, you would have taken away the very central principle of my ministry. By far the largest number of my sermons and the most of my preaching has been aimed at the conviction and the conversion of men.

The monument to the reformer stands in City Hall Park. The monument to the preacher has yet to be erected. What shall it be?

Not a shrine; not a tomb. Mr. Beecher does not lie in Greenwood. Mr. Beecher cannot be removed to Orange Street. He is not coffined with his moldering bones. "Why seek ye the living among the dead?" To build a tomb adjoining Plymouth Church to hold his ashes would be to erect a monument to bear perpetual testimony against his lifelong teaching concerning death and immortality. It would be as if Plymouth Church itself should be draped in black on the anniversary of his death. It would be to tell all the world that Plymouth Church loves the man and repudiates his message. The day of sacred relics, of veneration for the bones of a saint, has passed—certainly for all Protestant Christendom, even more assuredly, if that were possible, for all who accept Mr. Beecher's faith in the continuity of life. Nor should that memorial be a mere decorative ornamentation of Plymouth Church. That church is a

New England meeting-house. It was made so with deliberate design. It cannot be converted into a cathedral. It cannot be made cathedralesque. Whatever beautifying the old meeting-house is capable of receiving it may well receive; but the changes should be designed and furnished by an architect who realizes the simplicity of Puritanism and knows how to preserve that simplicity. The memorial to Henry Ward Beecher should be the preservation and perpetuation and enlargement of his work—the work of bringing men to acquaintance with God through his Son Jesus Christ, and so into Christlikeness of life and character. It should be a permanent endowment, or a better equipment, or both, for the work of saving men from sin and arming them for righteousness. It should be such an equipment as Mr. Beecher to-day might desire for carrying on the work of to-day. It should be such an equipment as he would counsel who wished to have the Bethel Mission furnished more royally than his own meeting-house, because the Bethel Mission was for the poor. It should be such an equipment as he would counsel who pleaded for coffee-rooms, and gymnasiums, and bowling-alleys for young men, when there were no coffee-rooms, few gymnasiums, and bowling-alleys were believed to belong to the devil. It should be an equipment for Christian service, and its motto might well be, "That your whole spirit and soul and body be preserved blameless unto the coming of our Lord Jesus Christ."

Beyond this, what it should be it is not for us, because it is not for the general public, to say. That question must be left to be answered by the present pastor of Plymouth Church, Dr. Newell Dwight Hillis, and by the officers and members of that church. They know, as the general public cannot know, what equipment is needed by Plymouth Church for the preservation and enlargement of its Christian work. When they have decided that question, if every one who has received some inspiration from Mr. Beecher to a better and larger life, and every one who recognizes what Mr. Beecher did to make larger and better the life of the Nation, contributes even a little, there should be no difficulty in erecting a memorial which will not only show that Mr. Beecher has not been forgotten by the community which he served so well, but which will also perpetuate his service in new forms, for future generations.

⁂

Lenten Meditations

The Living Vine

Is the Church of Christ decadent? Is is passing into the old age whose decrepitude is premonitory of a not distant death? Is it among the things to be shaken as of things that are made? Is it among the things that are seen and are temporal? Is the time of its usefulness drawing toward its close?

What Church? Which Church? The Roman? or the Anglican? or the Puritan? or the Methodist? If either one of these is the Church of Christ, it may be temporal, it may even now be losing its power and passing away. For the world lived before these churches were born, and would live were they dead. But neither of these is the Church of God.

I am the Vine; ye are the branches: He that abideth in me, and I in him, the same bringeth forth much fruit: for separated from me ye can do nothing. If one abide not in me, he is cast forth as a branch; and men gather them, and cast them into the fire, and they are burned.

To the Jews Israel was Jehovah's Vine, of which Jehovah was the life. Henceforth, says Christ, my Church is the Vine, of which I am the life. The Roman and Anglican and Puritan and Methodist Churches are not the Church; they are churches. They are not the Vine; they are branches. They may be among the things to be shaken as of things that are made. They may become fruitless and die, and may be cut off from the Church, and may be burned as with fire and reduced to ashes, and the Church be all the stronger for their destruction.

The Church of God began when Abraham built his altar to the unknown God and gathered his household about it for worship. It became the Jewish Church when Moses came down from the Mount with the Tables of the Law and brought to encamped Israel the promise that God would be their God and they should become a nation of priests. It became the Christian Church when the disciples, after the crucifixion of their Lord, gathered in an Upper Chamber and waited for the revelation of the resurrection. The Church is as old as human history; as universal as the social order; as vital as religion. So long as God is God and man is man, so long men will unite to seek and serve their God; and this union of men with one another, because they are one with God, is the Church of the living God. The Church is the bride of Christ. Not until humanity is divorced from Christ, and has forgotten his love and has ceased to love him, will the Church cease to be. The Church is the body of Christ. Not till Christ has forgotten humanity, and ceased to live with men and no longer loves them, will the Church cease to be.

The Church is more than the creed on which it sometimes seems to depend; as a vine is more than the trellis to which it clings. The Church is more than the worship it employs to express its life; as the Vine is more than the blossoms which fill the air with their fragrance. The Church is more than all the churches; as the Vine is more than all its branches. The Church is Christ ministering to the life of men, through the life of men. It is the Republic of God. It is the visible organ of an invisible life. It is the corporate life of God on the earth. The Church of Christ has a divine origin: it was born in the resurrection of Jesus Christ. It has a divine message: it is the herald of a Healer and a Helper, who for us men and our salvation has come down to earth. It has a divine life: the life of God in the experiences of his children. It has a divine authority: the authority of the Divine Companion abiding in devout souls.

Religion is more than individualistic; it is also organic. As the tree is more than fibers of wood bound together, as the river is more than drops of water flowing together, so the Church is more than individual Christians uniting together in Christian work and worship. If religion is the life of God in the soul of man, then the Church is the organic life of God in human history. What unites these individuals and makes of them this organism is not the creed they believe, nor the ritual they use, nor the order under which they arrange themselves; it is the divine life of faith and hope and love which they share.

The greatest river in the world has no banks. No earthy bonds confine it; no mountain peaks give it birth; no drought lessens its flow; no floods increase its volume. It rises in the Gulf of Mexico, flows northward through the Atlantic Ocean, melts and converts into its own current the icebergs which venture into its warm embrace, and, spreading fan-like along the coast of Europe, blesses the lands it touches, and gives them the grape, the apricot, the peach. Such a river is the Church of God, bound together by the warmth of its own members; flowing through the centuries; bearing summer on its bosom; blessing and to bless.

A river whose waters make glad the city of God
And the most High in His habitation.
God is in the midst of her,
Therefore she shall not be moved.
God helps her, when the morning dawns.

❀

Justice to the Philippines

In a brief message the President communicates to Congress the following cable despatch from Governor Taft:

> Necessity for passage House tariff bill most urgent. The conditions of productive industry and business considerably worse than in November, the date of last report, and growing worse each month. Some revival in sugar and tobacco prices, due to expectation of tariff law. The interests of Filipinos in sugar and tobacco extensive, and failure of bill will be blow in face of those interests. Number of tobacco factories will have to close, and many sugar haciendas will be put up for sale at a sacrifice if the bill will not pass. Customs receipts have fallen off this month one-third, showing decrease of purchasing power of islands. General business stagnant. All political parties, including labor unions, most strenuous in petition for tariff bill. Effect of its failure very discouraging.

Very succinctly the President describes the calamities which have befallen the Philippine people: the devastation of war; an epidemic of rinderpest destroying the cattle; a peculiar Oriental horse epidemic; the destruction of the rice crop by locusts; and, as a result, "imminent danger of famine in the islands." He adds that—

> the indispensable and pre-eminent need is the resurrection of productive industry from the prostration into which it has been thrown by the causes above enumerated. I ask action in

the tariff matter not merely from the standpoint of wise governmental policy, but as a measure of humanity in response to an appeal to which this great people should not close its ears. We have assumed responsibilities toward the Philippine Islands which we are in honor bound to fulfill. We have the specific duty of taking every measure in our power to see to their prosperity.

Senator Thomas M. Patterson, of Colorado, is the recognized leader of the opposition to the proposal for the reduction of the Philippine tariff. We have asked him to submit to our readers the grounds of this opposition, that they may have both sides of the question fully before them. He courteously complies with our request in the article which follows.

On Senator Patterson's own showing, no *immediate* damage is to be expected to American industry from lowering the tariff on Philippine products; but the *immediate* result to the Philippines of not lowering the tariff will be starvation to them, and consequent return to brigandage if not revolution. For when men are starving they steal; and when the government allows them to starve, they rise in revolt. On the conditions in the Philippines the testimony of Governor Taft and General Wright is conclusive as against Senator Patterson's opinions. Whether America *ought* to have assumed responsibility for the Philippines it is immaterial in this discussion to inquire. She *has* assumed that responsibility. For her to leave her wards to starvation, lest by opening her markets to them now she injure her own industries in the future, appears to us wholly unworthy of National honor. We cannot believe that the State of Colorado, which Senator Patterson represents, desires so ungenerous and unjust a policy to be pursued toward the people across the sea who are dependent on our action, not only for their peace and prosperity, but for life itself.

The Philippine Tariff

By Thomas M. Patterson

United States Senator for Colorado

ANSWERING your telegraphic note asking me to state the objections to Filipino tariff reduction, I beg leave to reply:

I have little or no objection to the measure except as it affects sugar and tobacco. Indeed, the measure is intended to affect only sugar and tobacco. Practically every other article reached by the measure is already on the free list, and the authority the bill confers upon the Philippine Commission to repeal export duties on articles products of the islands the Commission already possesses. The measure is cunningly devised as an entering wedge to ultimately place Philippine sugar and tobacco with all other Philippine products on the free list.

The reduction of sugar duties is intended to promote the cultivation of sugar in the Philippines. The land laws for the Philippines as enacted by Congress at its last session make it easy for a small group of men, by organizing themselves into as many different corporations as they can invent names for, to secure title to Philippine lands by the hundreds of thousands of acres, although nominally a corporation can purchase not more than 2,500 acres. Governor Luke Wright told me in the Senate committee-room that five or six million acres of the islands were well adapted to the raising of sugar. An expert in Philippine lands—one who visited the islands for a syndicate to investigate the land and sugar problems—told me that at least 8,000,000 acres were good sugar lands. I believe they do not overestimate their quantity.

Most of these lands are as productive for sugar as the sugar lands of Cuba or the Hawaiian Islands. The concurrence of expert opinion is that the average of Philippine lands will produce from two to three times as much of the products common to the islands and the United States as will the lands of the United States.

Corporations and syndicates are already formed, and continue to be formed, to exploit these islands. Within a few years they will have a monopoly of the best lands in the islands upon which to raise sugar and tobacco. The Sugar Trust is not the least formidable of those who are already in the field. It is chiefly their work, this reduction of tariff on Philippine sugar and tobacco. It means millions and millions of dollars to them in the future. With one-fifth of the lands suitable for sugar culture in the islands put to raising sugar, more sugar would be annually produced than is now annually consumed in the United States. Within ten or fifteen years sugar-raising in the United States—both cane and beet—would be driven out, and the much cheaper Philippine sugar take its place.

Statistics demonstrate that the Philippine sugar, owing to the productiveness of the soil and peon labor, can be produced at a fraction above sixty-two cents per one hundred pounds. The American farmer is now paid for the sugar beets he raises a fraction over $2 per one hundred pounds for the sugar in them. This, with the cost of manufacturing the beet sugar, storage, insurance, transportation, etc., makes the cost of the American article well on to $3 per hundred. The distance that Philippine sugar must be transported is no protection to the American farmer—fifteen or twenty cents per hundred will cover transportation charges.

Considering the above data with active exploitation of the Philippines for sugar production, how long will it be, if our ports are thrown open or her present tariff reduced, before Philippine sugar will supplant American sugar in every American town and upon every American table?

The proposed tariff reduction for Philippine sugar is a broad, roaring farce if considered as a measure of relief from the present distressing conditions in the islands. The largest amount of sugar imported from the islands into the United States since 1890 was in 1896. It amounted to 145,075,343 pounds. The proposed tariff reduction of 25 per cent. would reduce the duties paid upon that amount less than $726,000. The next largest amount imported from the Philippines was in 1899. It amounted to 51,625,280 pounds. The saving in duties upon this quantity would be about $258,126. The smallest amount of sugar imported from the Philippines was in 1901. It amounted to 4,693,333 pounds. The saving in duties upon this amount would be less than $23,466. The reduction in amount of duties paid upon tobacco would be much less than upon sugar.

How intelligent men can preserve straight faces while they claim that the proposed measure will bring present appreciable relief to the islands is past understanding.

The moving spirit behind the Philippine tariff bill is not grief for the present sufferings of the Filipinos, but the spirit of greed—the same spirit that has proved so overpowering in Government circles in connection with Cuban sugar. It is the spirit of the modern sugar trust.

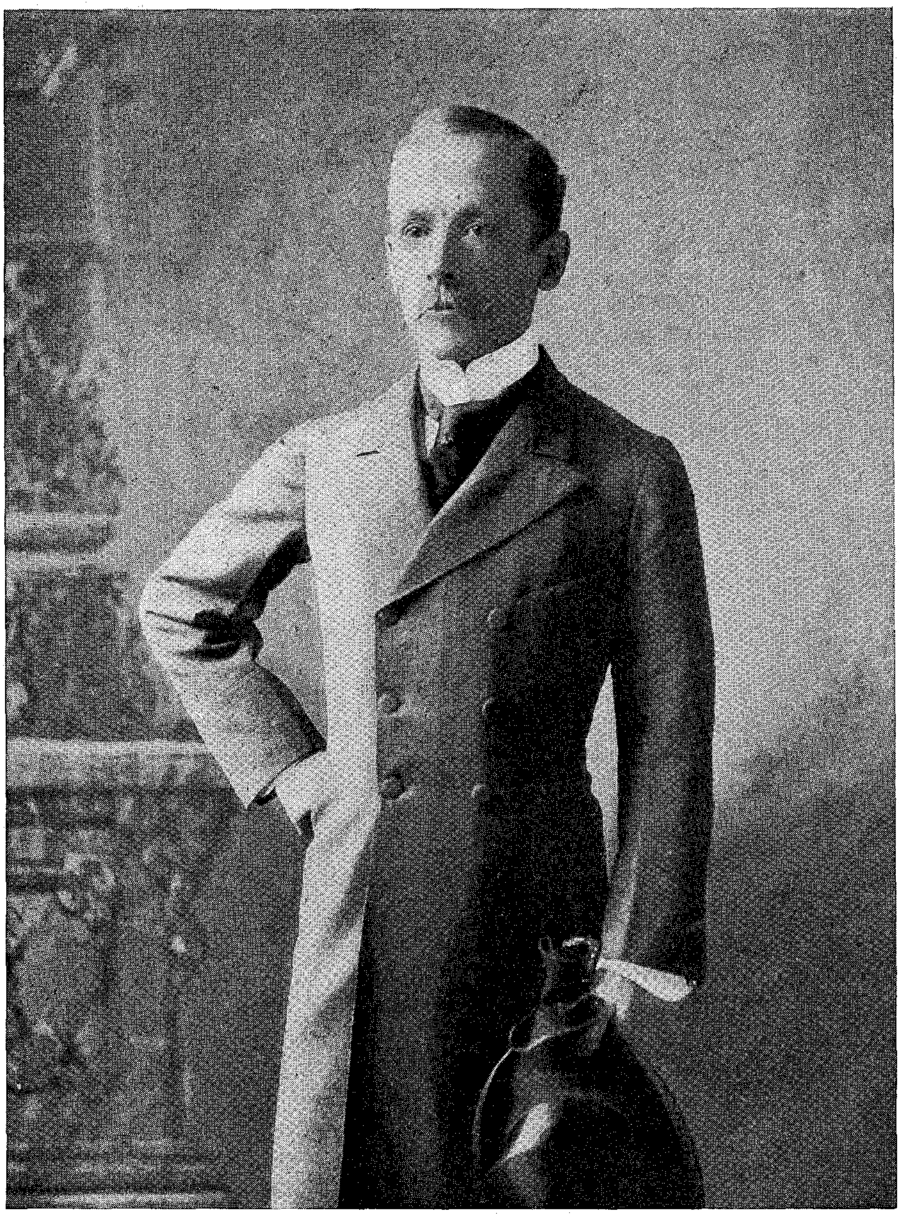
It is true that the measure would not appreciably affect the American sugar industry for a few years; but, unless a halt is called, and called now, within ten or fifteen years a great and growing American agricultural industry will be destroyed, and to this I am unalterably opposed.

I am not a modern protectionist. I believe the tariff needs revising and reducing, and needs it badly. When revision is undertaken, I am quite willing that sugar shall bear its proportionate reduction, but I am distinctly opposed to any trust or other organization of greed dictating upon what particular American industry the tariff shall be removed, that its gains may be increased at the expense of that industry.

It is a little singular that the Administration has lately focused its attention in two noted instances upon sugar and tobacco for tariff reduction. Of course New England and Pennsylvania and other States similarly situated heartily second the attacks. But if some iron or cotton or woolen industry were to be the sufferer, the White House would be made too hot for its present occupant.

I recognize the fact that the United States should succor the unfortunate Filipinos. We killed their best men, devastated their fields, created conditions that bred pestilence, left ruin in the tracks of our armies, in effecting their subjugation—a subjugation that is the outcome of as base a betrayal of National honor as history records. But don't destroy one of the most promising and at present one of the most prosperous of American agricultural industries in an effort at succor that in fact will bring no relief to those who need it.

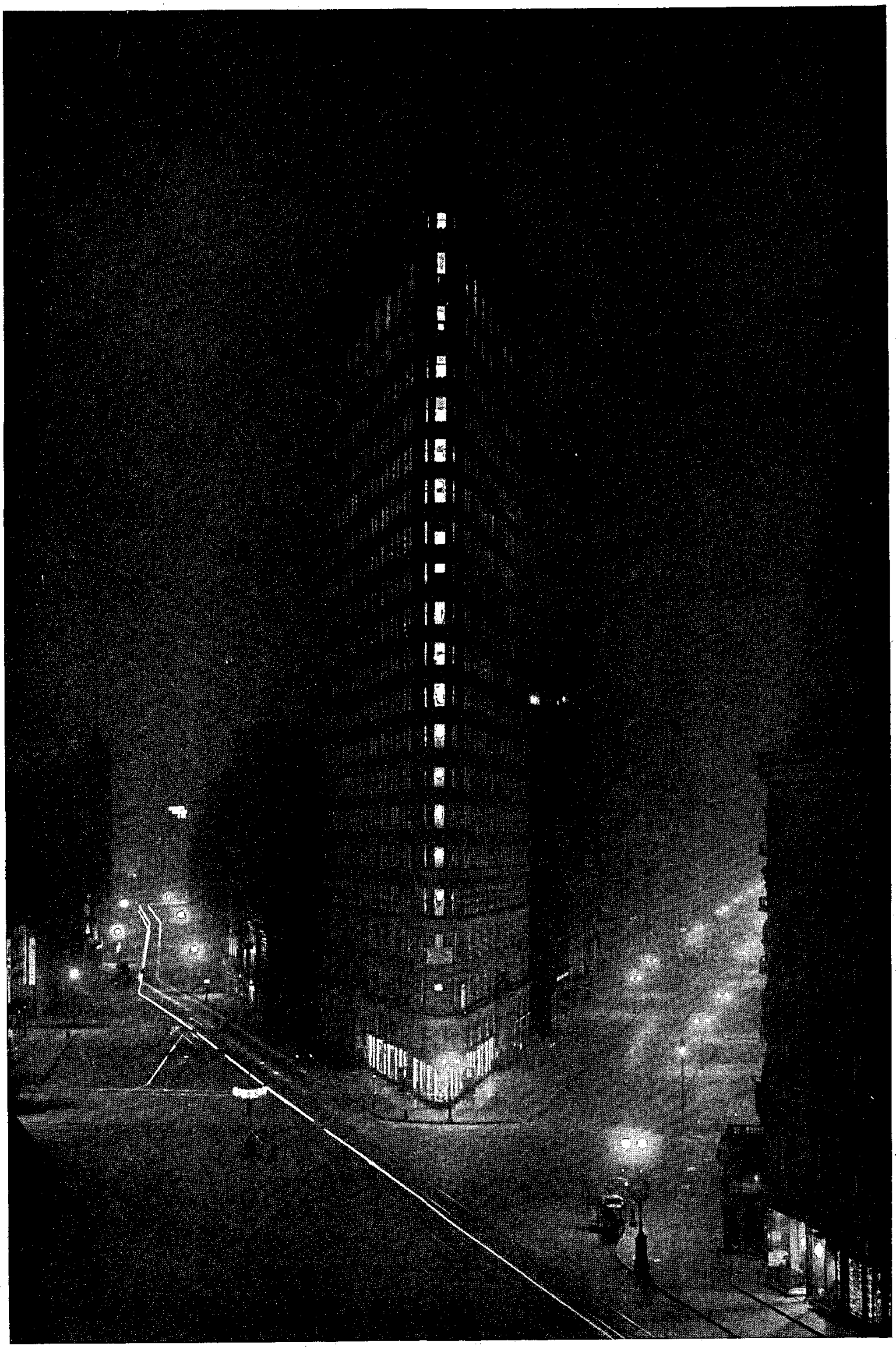
United States Senate,
Washington, D. C., March 1, 1903.



COPYRIGHT, 1903, BY CLINEDINST, WASHINGTON

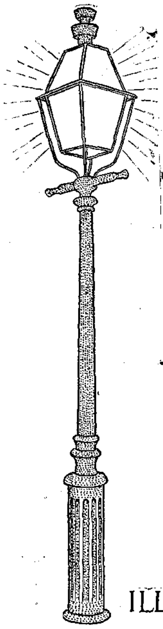
The New German Ambassador

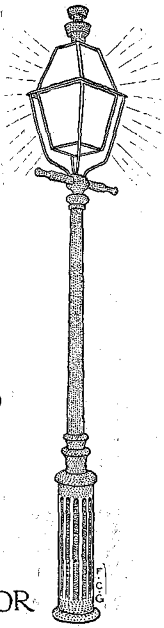
Baron Speck von Sternburg arrived in Washington as the representative of the German Government just in time to be plunged into the Venezuelan controversy. It is understood that he is already exercising his great influence and power in the direction of bringing this controversy to a satisfactory conclusion. It is not his first official residence in this country, as he was formerly connected with the German legation and embassy at Washington. He also has an American wife. Before he reached this country, Baron von Sternburg remarked that he regarded the work of extending German friendship in the United States as delightful, and especially so because the policy of the present Administration was absolutely open-hearted and honest, and President Roosevelt was always open to argument.



THE FAMOUS FLATIRON BUILDING

The strong line of light at the left was made by the Broadway trolley cars; the fainter light turning off at Twenty-third Street was made by the Lexington Avenue cars; the two parallel lines in the foreground were made by an automobile, which came up Broadway and stopped in front of the Flatiron Building for one minute and then continued up Broadway.





WHEN THE LAMPS ARE LIGHTED

BY ARTHUR HEWITT

ILLUSTRATED WITH PHOTOGRAPHS BY THE AUTHOR

WHEN night falls on the city of New York, all the way from the hand of the Statue of Liberty to Harlem millions of lamps are lighted—lamps of all kinds, from the simple glimmer in the window of poverty to the radiant and almost painful brilliance of the street light; and then truly is a scene of beauty and enchantment created.

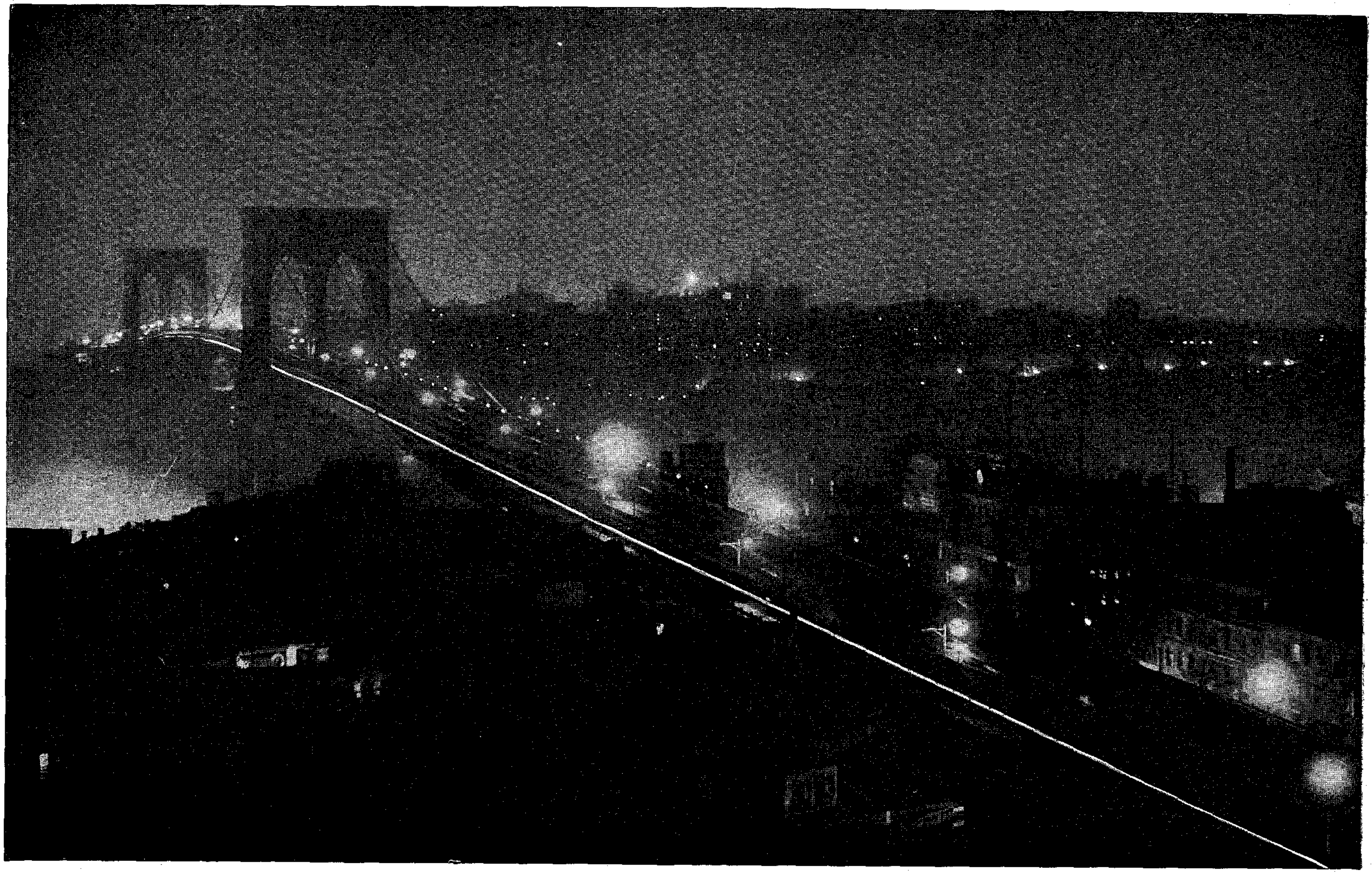
To see downtown New York at night, mount on the roof of a sky-scraper, as I did the other evening, when I made the accompanying photograph of Brooklyn Bridge, and a varied panorama is at once with you. In one direction huge buildings looked in the distance like illumined castles in some mystic fairyland. Another view showed me Broadway, City Hall Park, and the domed World Building; while the composition of the picture was completed with quaint old-fashioned chimney-pots in the foreground, standing out dark and black against the brightness of the street below.

Turning round and walking to the other side of my vantage-point, I saw Brooklyn Bridge sweeping across the East River, its massiveness somewhat dimmed by smoke and fog, yet curiously alive with the moving head-lights of a thousand cars ever crossing and recrossing.

Then there were other downtown scenes. Standing in City Hall Park about six o'clock, Newspaper Row is well worth studying, every window showing its light in each great structure—a semicircle of buildings ablaze. On Broadway, again, one saw the beautiful spire of Trinity, very dark and very black, yet plainly silhouetted against the well-lighted building beyond it.

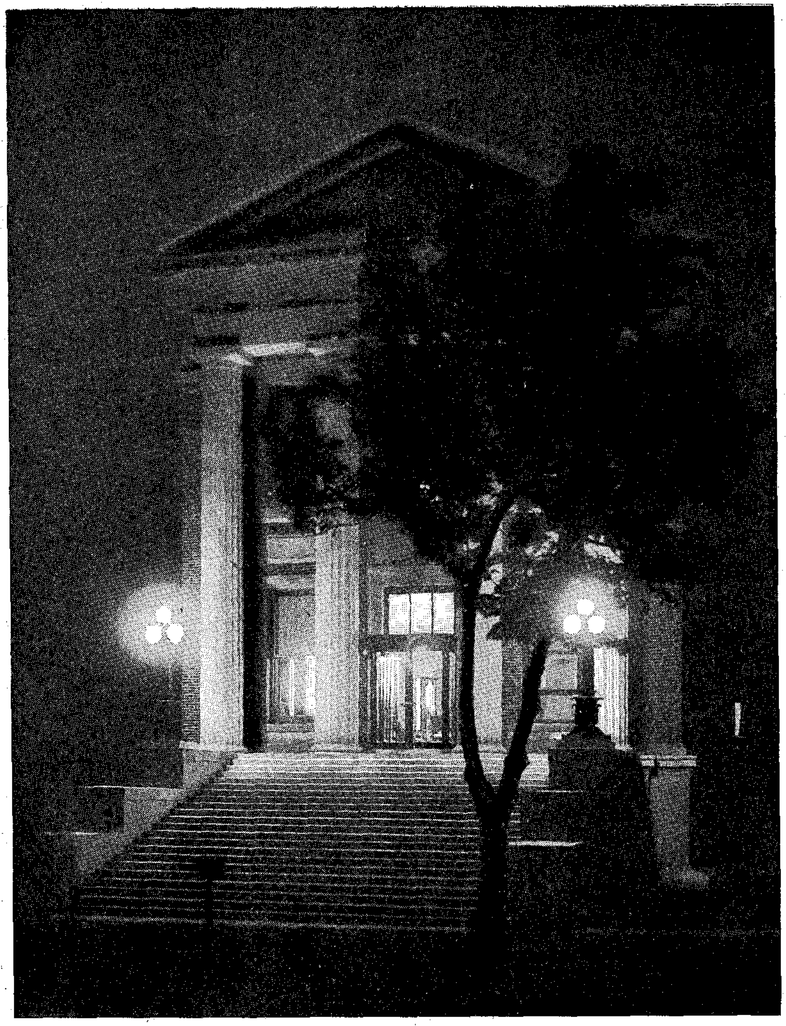
After seven o'clock the office windows one by one grow dim, as the workers go home. Now is the time to go uptown, where all is aglow. There you will meet with still more varied scenes. Advertisers are busy there at night, and you will see their gigantic signs with the glare of a thousand hidden lights thrown on them until they look like giant colored transparencies. Then there are the immense name-plates set with electric lamps. These are away up on high, and blazon out their message in letters of gold against a black sky, to the throngs tramping the streets below. Here and there a sign is made more impressive by the fact that the illuminated words are constantly changing and interchanging by some mechanical device. Then here again is a sign in letters of red, another in some fantastic shape. Verily, everything is ablaze; there are illuminated clocks, street signs in purple, and even the outlines of the great department stores themselves are studded with lights.

Wander in Herald Square, and from there up or down town, east or west, and



BROOKLYN BRIDGE DURING THE EVENING RUSH HOUR

The picture, exposed for twenty-one minutes, was taken when the fog was so thick that the nearest pier of the bridge could not be seen. The strong white line was made by the trolley cars coming across the bridge from Brooklyn. The lights on the other track show that there was a blockade.



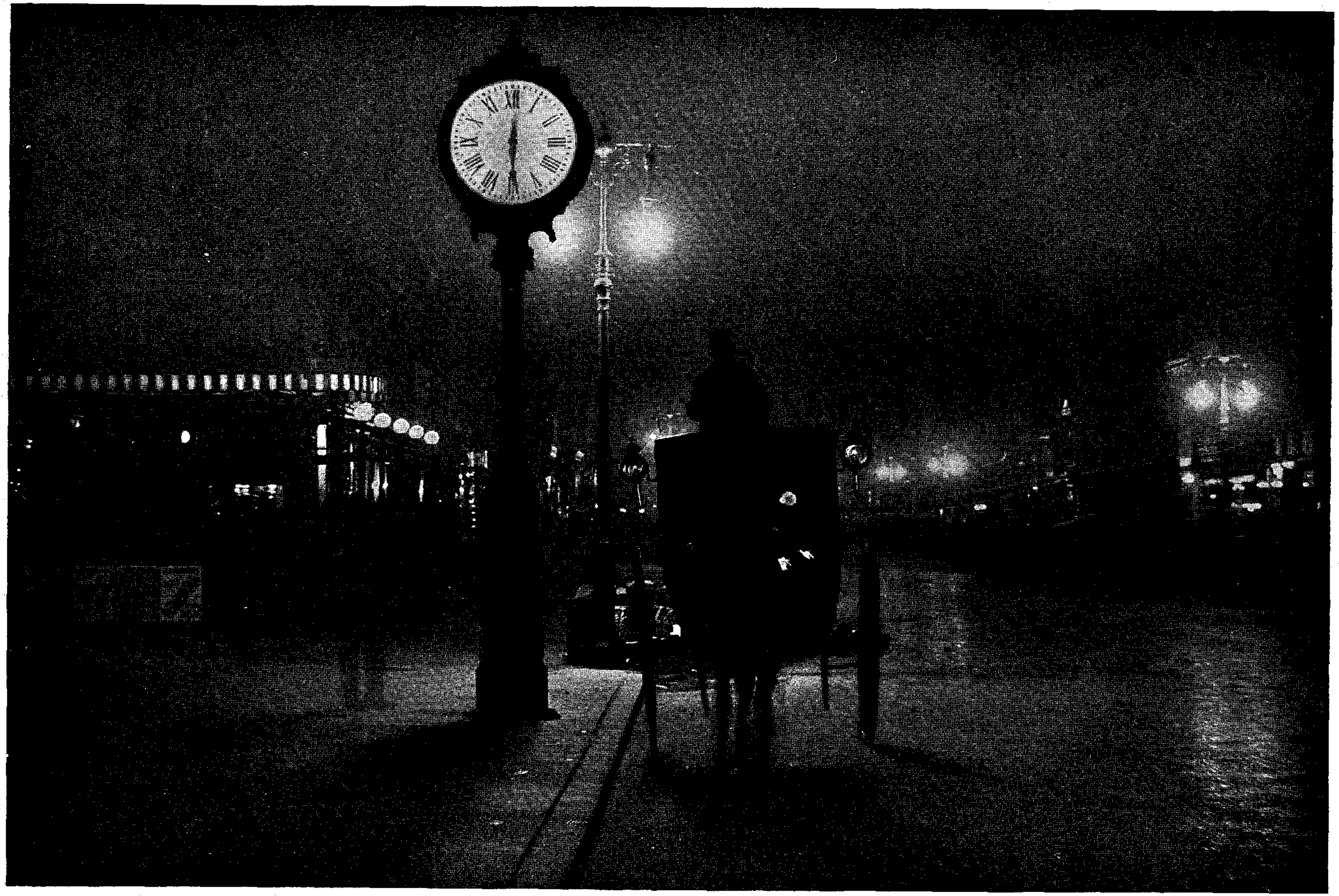
AN EVENING VIEW AT COLUMBIA COLLEGE

all this will be apparent. Go to this part or that of the great city and you will ever see this universal illumination. Even the rivers are flanked with the names of the various railroads, each vying with the other, in these days of tremendous competition, by shouting long and loud through these advertisements of the night.

Conditions of weather and atmosphere have a very great deal to do with viewing lighted New York. If you are impressed with it on a clear night, doubly so will you be in the rain. For then reflected lights on the bepuddled streets will abound everywhere, deep in tone and rich in high lights, and edged with charming wavy lines, increasing the general illumination tenfold.

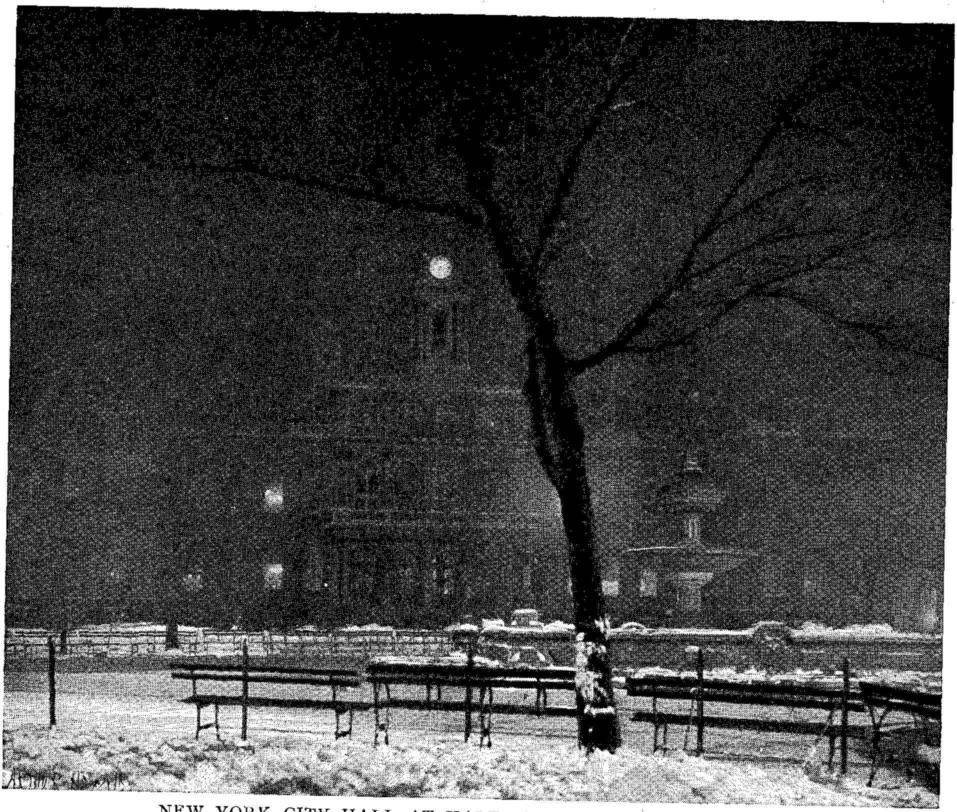
In a fog or in a blizzard totally different aspects are to be seen. Great lights appear to be clamoring to fight through the haze, and there are curious and weird effects. What was ablaze on another night now appears like some overhead vaporous ghost. In the snow, of course, everything changes. The trees in the parks cast dark, hard shadows, moving in rhythmic time with the swinging lamps which make them.

It is on just such nights of fog, rain, and snow that I have found that the most effective photographs are to be made. Take, for example, my snow scene at Fifty-ninth street. I took this after a recent snow-storm. Wet and clinging, it had charmingly decorated the trees, one of



LOOKING UP FIFTH AVENUE

The face of the clock shows that it took a three minutes' exposure to make this photograph. The white streaks at the right of the picture were made by the lights of passing cabs.



NEW YORK CITY HALL AT HALF-PAST SIX IN THE EVENING

This photograph was exposed for five minutes, during which time hundreds of people were passing through City Hall Park.

which I chose for my foreground. The plate for this picture was exposed for a minute and a half. In night work all moving objects—people, cabs, etc.—have no effect on the plate. You will notice, however, in the picture that I have just been describing, two carriages are clearly seen at the hotel entrance, simply because they happened to remain stationary during the entire exposure.

Devotees of the camera who essay night work need patience, dogged perseverance, and a good deal of indifference to discomfort. Well I remember the taking of the picture of the famous Flatiron Building. I had previously arranged the night for a photograph with the owners of the building, as they had kindly consented to light up the entire structure. A strong and bitter wind was blowing when I set up my camera on the roof of a neighboring building. It required a stout heart and strong determination to go ahead with my work; for after a few moments (one cannot well work the mechanism of a camera with gloves) my hands were numb with cold. I recollect that the wind was so strong that it obliged me to hold my camera, to steady it, during the entire six minutes of the exposure ; a movement would have spoiled everything, so I had to cling ruthlessly on, in spite of the bitter cold ; and I cannot remember a longer six minutes in my life. To add to the general discomfort, I was standing on a mixture of loose boards and all sorts of electrical wires, and necessarily leaning against a newly painted advertising sign, which I found, on my arrival home, somewhat reflected on my overcoat.

Regarding this particular picture, you will notice the curious zigzag lines of light in the center of the streets ; these are caused by the lights of the moving cars. On the left, again, of the picture, starting from the foreground, you will see two faintly traced parallel lines leading to two brighter spots close to the Broadway sidewalk, then again tracing themselves on into the distance. All this can be easily explained. An automobile had passed with its electric side lights, had halted a

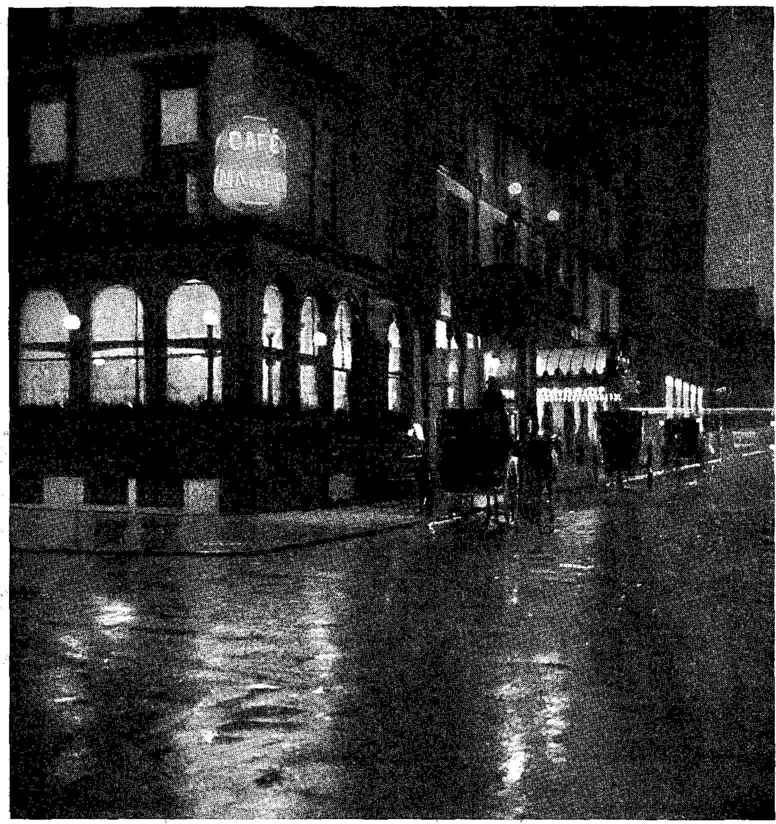
A WET NIGHT IN MADISON SQUARE
This picture shows one of the illuminated advertising signs so familiar to New Yorkers.

moment, causing the brighter spots, and then gone on.

When I have been working with my camera in the city streets, I have been surprised at the attitude of passers-by. People seemed, as a rule, quite ignorant of night photography and its possibilities. There were some who asked many questions; others looked serious, tapping their foreheads and saying in a compassionate way to their companions something about a "crazy man;" others, again, stood motionless, stared for a few moments with a stolidity and perseverance that were astounding, and then passed on.

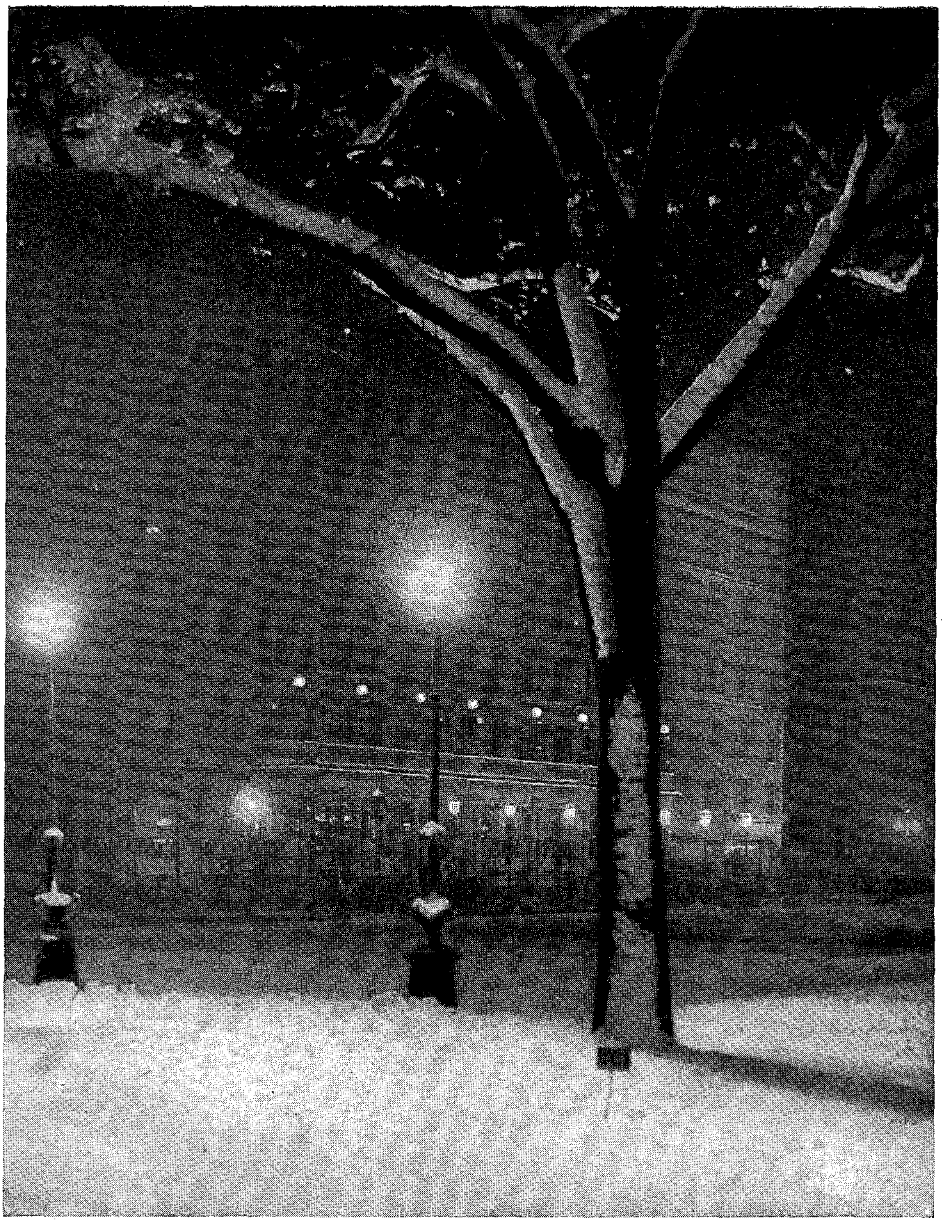
With regard to the history of night photography, I should like here to mention that it was Paul Martin, of London, who in 1896 first discovered its possibilities. His photographs of "London by Night" showed the picturesque beauties of the streets of a great city under electric light. "A Corner of Trafalgar Square" and "A Wet Night" were revelations as to the opportunities available. W. A. Fraser, of New York, shortly after made some superb street scenes here, in which he improved on Martin's work by introducing life into the pictures.

Returning to my illustrations, the Madison Square picture was taken, as will be readily seen, on a wet night. During the seven minutes' exposure I was careful to cover the lens each time a car passed up or down Broadway, otherwise there would have been a discordant streak of light in the wake of the headlights right across the picture, as was unavoidably shown on the Brooklyn Bridge and Flatiron Building photographs.



ONE OF NEW YORK'S FAMOUS CAFÉS AT TEN O'CLOCK IN THE EVENING

No rule can be given regarding the time of exposure; each subject requires special thought and a careful previous review of the light conditions. While I gave the bridge picture twenty-one minutes' exposure because there was fog and comparatively little illumination, the Broadway store had only one minute; so with every phase of this fascinating work, it is a matter of judgment rather than of rule,



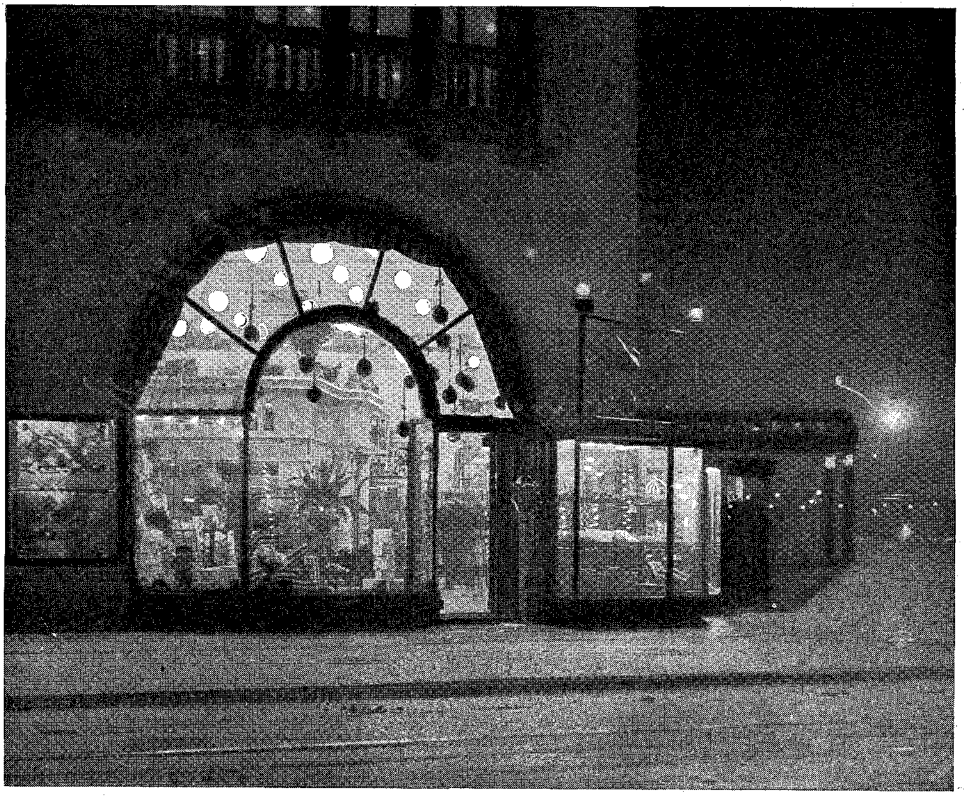
AT THE ENTRANCE TO CENTRAL PARK

This picture was taken after one of the heavy snow-storms of the winter.

and experience will prove the best guide. If, for instance, you give a picture too long an exposure, you will find in your result that you have entirely lost the true night effect, and the result will appear in many particulars to have been made in daylight. Again, if the exposure is too short, you will get nothing but a great blackness studded here and there with specks of light. All of the delicate detail in the shadows, so necessary to the pictorial value, will have been lost. I advise any one, before he goes out to attempt this kind of work, to study very thoroughly the conditions of light.

The ability to see is everything in photography—especially in night photography. If there is little illumination, there will be little good in making a picture. If, again, there is light from a variety of sources, one should learn how to use it to the best advantage. I will make this clear by an example. In the Madison Square wet night scene, I carefully took my point of view, placing my camera so that the shapely tree in the foreground just obliterated one of those painfully bright clear-glass arc lights. Had I not done this, the general effect of the picture would have been destroyed by violent contrast and a discordant note.

To encourage to further effort those who have so far failed in this branch of photography, let me say that it was not until after five nights of worthless trials that I made the picture used on the preceding page, and perhaps some twenty nights in all were required to secure the set.

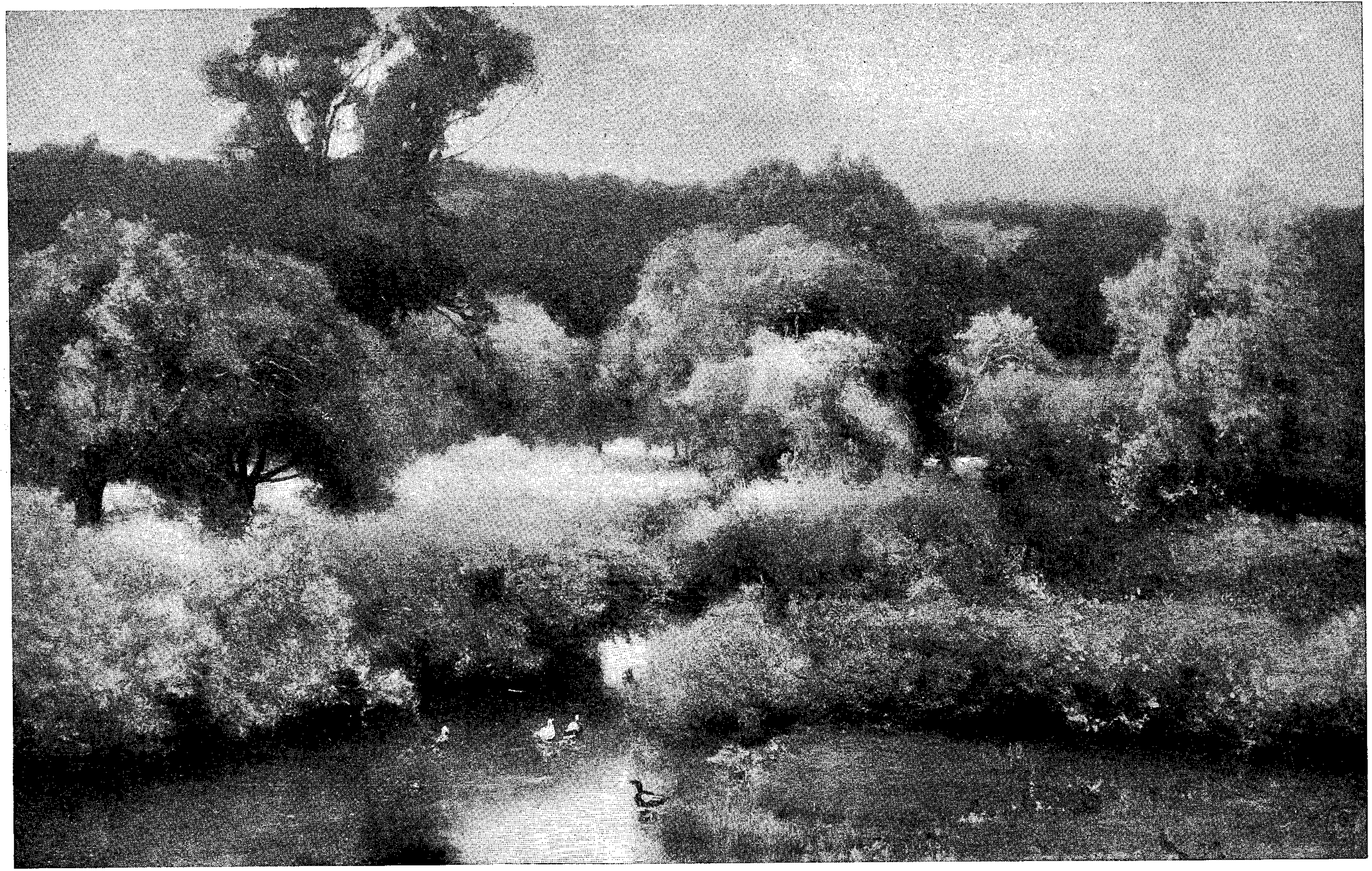


A FINE WINDOW DISPLAY ON BROADWAY
This picture was taken at nine o'clock in the evening, when the sidewalk was crowded with passers-by.

The Path of Roses

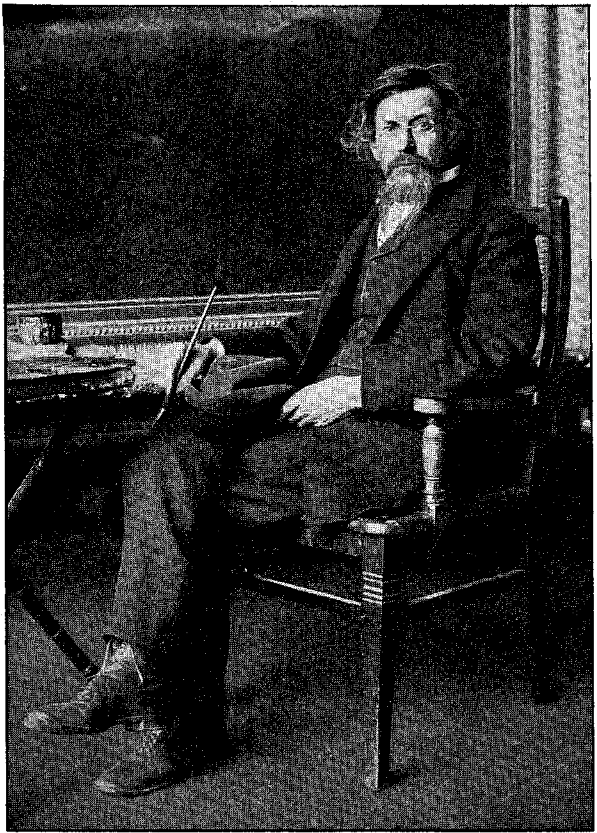
By Priscilla Leonard

Before some happy feet
The roses blossom all along the way
In fragrance summer-sweet.
O careless path of joy!—yet happier they
Who, toiling on alone
Where never has the road been aught but rough,
And never rose has grown,
Find, even in their stumbling, strength enough
To plant with patient hand
The seeds of gladness, till behind them spring
Flowers in the desert land,
Roses more rich than careless joy can bring!



THE GRAY LOWERY DAY

Painted in 1877. In the Thomas B. Clarke sale of 1899 this picture was sold for $10,150.



PHOTOGRAPH BY EDWIN S. BENNETT, N. Y.

George Inness

By John C. Van Dyke

Professor of the History of Art in Rutgers College

A MAN of the business world, knowing nothing of the peculiar manifestations of the artistic temperament, would be very apt to wonder over the mental make-up of a George Inness. An artist's way of looking at things is never quite sensible to the man in the street. It is too temperamental, too impulsive; and Inness was super-temperamental even for an artist. When he expressed himself in paint, he was very sane; but when he argued and talked, his auditors thought him erratic. And not without some show of reason. He was easily stirred by controversy, and in the heat of discussion he often discoursed like a mad rhapsodist. His thin hands and cheeks, his black hair and piercing eyes, his dramatic action as he walked and talked, seemed to complete the picture of the perfervid visionary. He was always somewhat hectic. As a boy he was delicate and suffered from epilepsy. His physician had nothing to recommend but fresh air. As a man one of his hearers at table one day, after listening to his exposition of socialism or some allied theme, said: "Mr. Inness, what you need is fresh air." Inness himself used to tell this story with a little smile as though conscious of having appeared extravagant. As for "fresh air," he knew more about it than all his business acquaintances put together; but in the sense of its clearing the vision so that he could see things in a matter-of-fact light it was wholly unavailing. He was born with the nervous organization of the enthusiast. It is not the best temperament imaginable for a practical business man.

And yet Inness certainly thought that

his views about life, faith, government, and ethics were sound and applicable to all humanity. Art was only a part of the universal plan. In his theory of the unities everything in the scheme entire dropped into its appointed place. He could show this, to his own satisfaction at least, by the symbolism of numbers, just as he could prove immortality by the argument for continuity. All his life he was devoted to mystical speculations. He had his faith in divination, astrology, spiritualism, Swedenborgianism; and he was greatly stirred by all social questions. During the Rebellion he volunteered to fight for the freedom of the slave, but was rejected on physical examination; and later he became interested in labor problems, believed in Henry George and the single tax, and had views about a socialistic republic. He never changed. When nearly seventy years of age, he was still discoursing on Swedenborg, on love, on truth, on the unities, with unabated enthusiasm. To expect such a man to be "practical" would be little less than an absurdity; and to expect a practical man to understand him would be almost as absurd.

But the fever of intensity that burned in Inness and his visionary way of looking at things were the very qualities that made him great as an artist. There is something in the abnormal view—one hardly knows what—that makes for art. Certainly the "practical" work of the camera gives only a statement of fact, where the less accurate drawing of a Millet or a Corot gives us something that we call artistic. The lens of the camera records mechanically and coldly, which may account for the prosaic quality of photography; but the retina of the artist's eye records an impression enhanced by the imagination, which may account for the poetry of art. Whichever way it may be put, it is the human element that makes the art. The painter does not record the facts like a machine; he gives his impression of the facts. Inness, with his exalted way of seeing, was full of impressions and was always insisting upon their vital importance. "The true purpose of the painter," he says, "is simply to reproduce in other minds the impression which a scene has made upon him. A work of art is not to instruct, not to edify, but to awaken an emotion. Its real greatness consists in the quality and the force of this emotion." And he practiced this preaching. Such nervous manifestations as enthusiasm, emotion, and imagination, working together and producing an impression, were the means wherewith he constructed pictures in his mind. They made up his mental equipment, and without them we should have heard little of George Inness the painter.

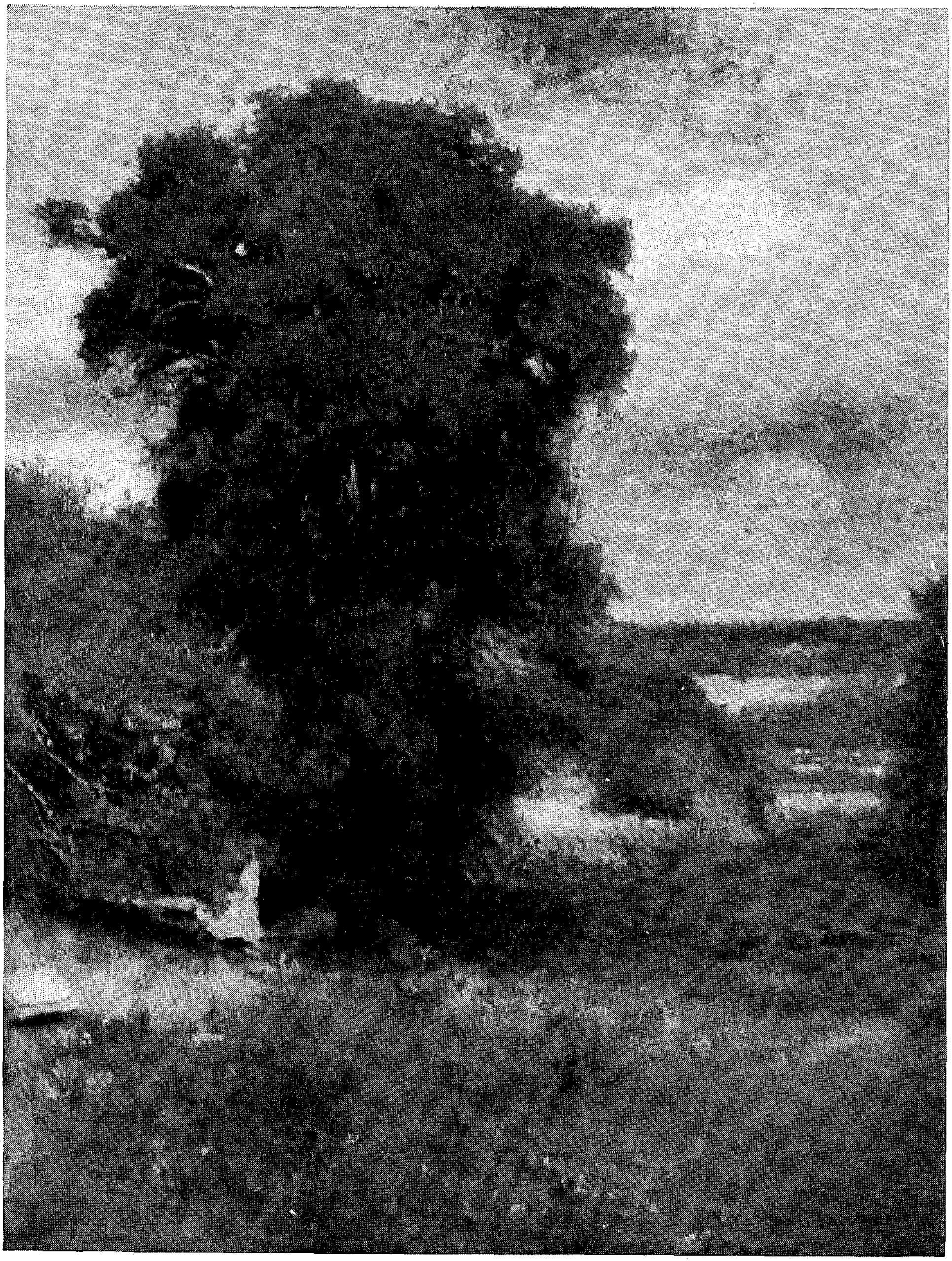
It was no mean or stinted equipment. In fact, Inness had too many impressions, had too much imagination. His diversity of view often opposed singleness of aim. While he was trying to record one impression upon the canvas, half a dozen others would rush in. That is one reason why he was never satisfied with his work, why he was always altering and amending, why he painted pictures one on top of another until (it is recorded) one canvas contained twenty different landscapes. The late William H. Fuller used to tell a story of his buying a landscape in Inness's studio one afternoon, and the next day, when he went to fetch it, he found an entirely different picture on the canvas. To his protests Inness replied: "It is a good deal better picture than the other."

"Yes; but I liked the other better."

"Well, you needn't take it—needn't pay for it."

"Yes; but it is not a question of losing money; I have lost my picture; it is buried under that new one."

Even when he was not bothered by many impressions, Inness had difficulty in contenting himself with his work. It was never quite right. There was a certain fine sentiment or feeling that he had about nature and that he wished to express in his picture; but he found that when the sentiment was strong the picture looked weak in the drawing, had no solidity or substance; and when the solidity was put in with exact textures and precise lines, then the sentiment fared badly. Inness knew where the trouble lay. "Details in the picture must be elaborated only enough fully to reproduce the impression. When more is done, the impression is weakened and lost, and we see simply an array of external things which may be very cleverly painted and may look very real, but which do not make an artistic painting. The effort and the difficulty of an artist is to combine the two, namely,

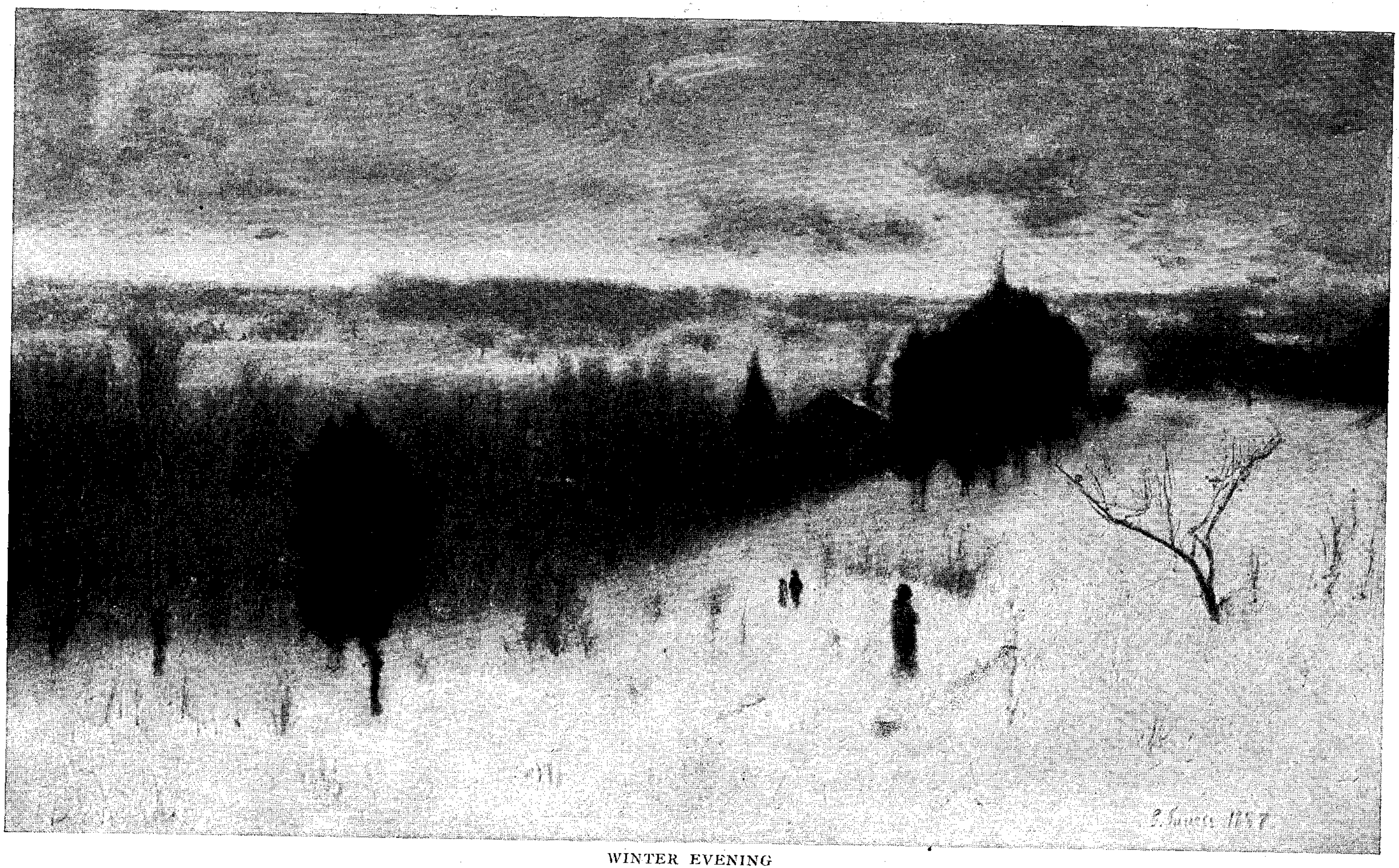


MIDSUMMER

Painted in 1875. In the collection of James W. Ellsworth, Esq.

to make the thought clear and to preserve the unity of impression. Meissonier always makes his thought clear; he is most painstaking with details; but he sometimes loses in sentiment. Corot, on the contrary, is to some minds lacking in objective force. He tried for years to get more objective force, but he found that what he gained in that respect he lost in sentiment."

This is Inness's own statement of the case, and if we apply it we shall understand why many of his later canvases were vague, suggestive, indefinite, often vapory. He was seeking to give a sentiment or feeling rather than topographical facts. When


G. Inness 1887

WINTER EVENING

Painted in 1887. Sold for $3,650 in the Thomas B. Clarke sale of 1899.

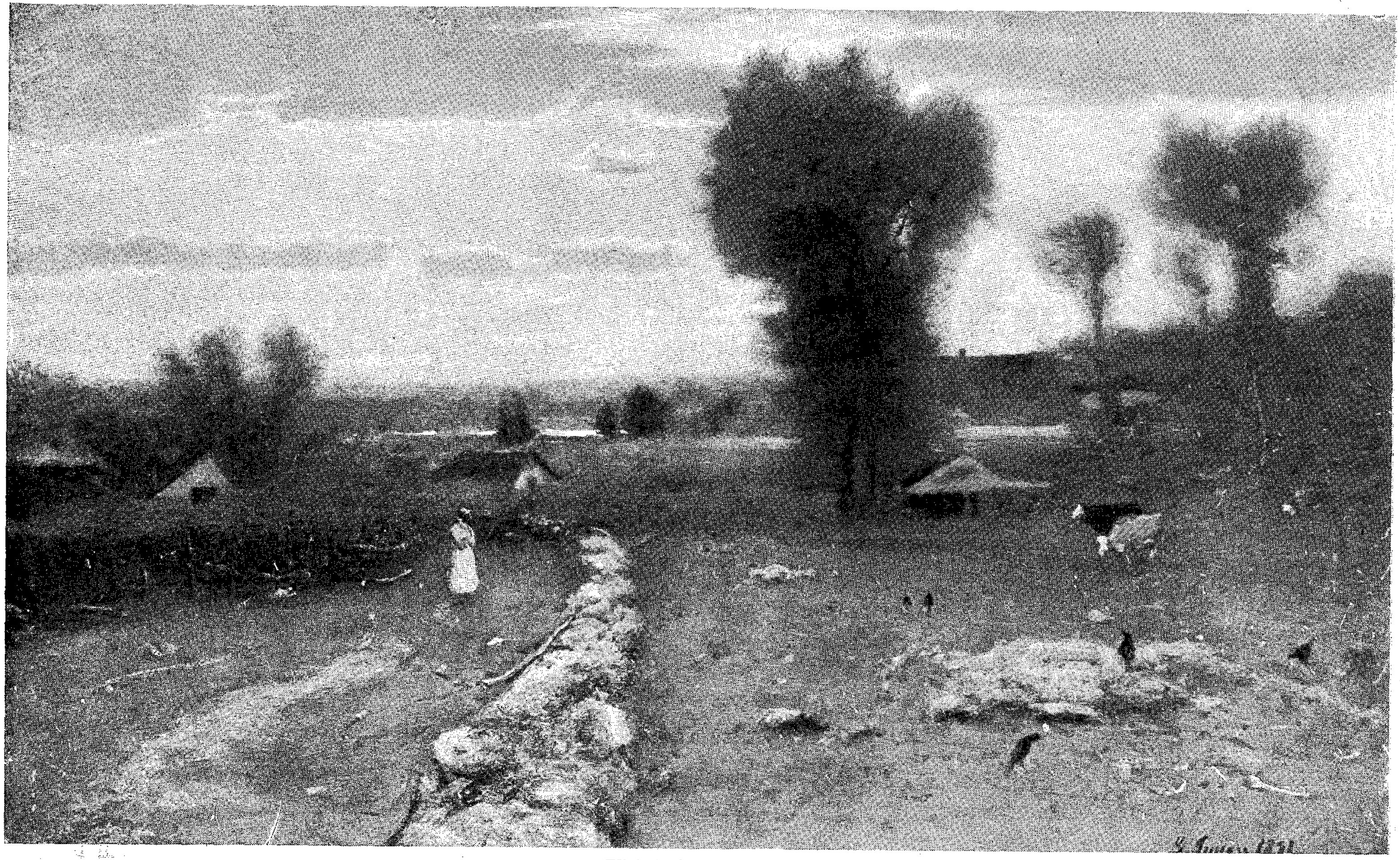
the canvas looked too weak, he tried to strengthen it here and there by bringing out lines and tones a little sharper, and with the result of making it look hard and cold. After several passings back and forth from strength to weakness, from sentiment to fact, the canvas began to show a kneaded and thumbed appearance. Its freshness was gone and its surface tortured. Inness was hardly ever free from this balancing of motives. It is a plague that bothers all painters, and no doubt many of them would agree with Inness in saying: "If a painter could unite Meissonier's careful reproduction of details with Corot's inspirational power, he would be the very god of art."

But Inness was more allied to Corot than to Meissonier. He never was the "perfect master of the brush" that we have heard him called, though he was an acceptable and often a very satisfactory technician. In his early days there were no art instructors in this country, and he was virtually self-taught. He had some instruction in engraving, and a few lessons from Gignoux in New York, but they amounted to little. In 1851 he went to Italy and spent several years, and there he first saw real pictures. He improved greatly by foreign study; and later on, when he came to know the work of the Fontainebleau-Barbizon men, he found himself in complete sympathy with it. Rousseau improved his *technique*, and Corot taught him the law of sacrifice; but he never became what one might call a perfect technician. He was frequently a little lame in drawing, and his pictures were often perplexing in their planes and lights. Nor was he always satisfactory in his textures and surfaces. Color was undoubtedly his strongest feature. He saw his landscapes as related masses of color rather than in linear extensions; and as he received the impression so he tried to place it upon canvas, holding the color patches together with air and illuminating the whole mass by light and shadow.

It was with color, light, and air that Inness scored his greatest successes. Almost all of his pictures will be found to hinge upon these primary features. He was very fond of moisture-laden air, rain effects, clouds clearing after rain, rainbows, mists, vapors, fogs, smokes, hazes—all phases of the atmosphere. In the same way he fancied dawns, dusks, twilights, moonlights, sunbursts, flying shadows, clouded lights—all phases of illumination. And again he loved sunset colors, cloud colors, sky colors, autumn tints, winter blues, spring grays, summer greens—all phases of color. And these not for themselves alone, but for the impression or effect that they produced. Did he paint a moonlight, it was with a great spread of silvery radiance, with a hushed effect, a still air, and the mystery of things half seen; did he paint an early spring morning, it was with vapor rising from the ground, dampness in the air, voyaging clouds and a warming blue in the sky; was it an Indian summer afternoon, there was a drowsy hum of Nature lost in dreamland, and with the indefinable regret of things passing away. His "Rainy Day, Montclair" has the bend and droop of foliage heavy with rain, the sense of saturation in earth and air, the suggestion of the very smell of rain; his "Delaware Water-Gap" shows the drive of a storm down the valley, with the sweep of the wind felt in the clouds, the trees, and the water; his "Niagara" is not topographical in any sense, but rather an impression of the clouds of mist and vapor boiling up from the great caldron, and struck into color-splendor by the sunlight.

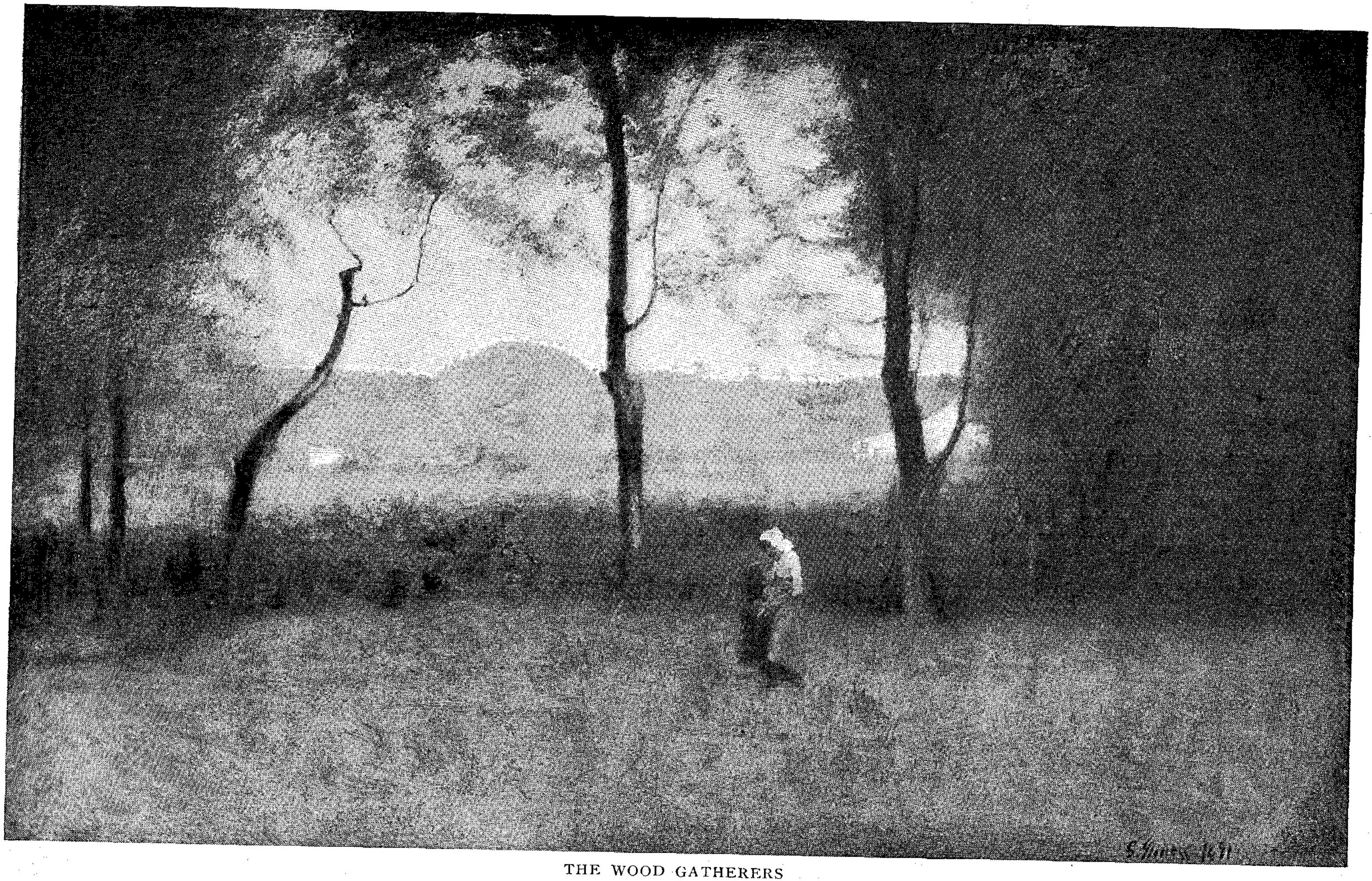
Every feature of landscape had its peculiar sentiment for Inness. He said so often enough and with no uncertain voice. Here is one of his utterances about it: "Rivers, streams, the rippling brook, the hillside, the sky, clouds—all things that we see—can convey that sentiment if we are in the love of God and the desire of truth. Some persons suppose that landscape has no power of conveying human sentiment. But this is a great mistake. The civilized landscape peculiarly can; and therefore I love it more and think it more worthy of reproduction than that which is savage and untamed. It is more significant."

That last passage about the "civilized landscape" is well worth noting, because this was exactly the landscape that Inness painted. His subjects are related to human life, and possibly our interest in his pictures is due to the fact that he shows thoughts, emotions, and sensations comprehensible of humanity. He tells things that every one may have thought but no



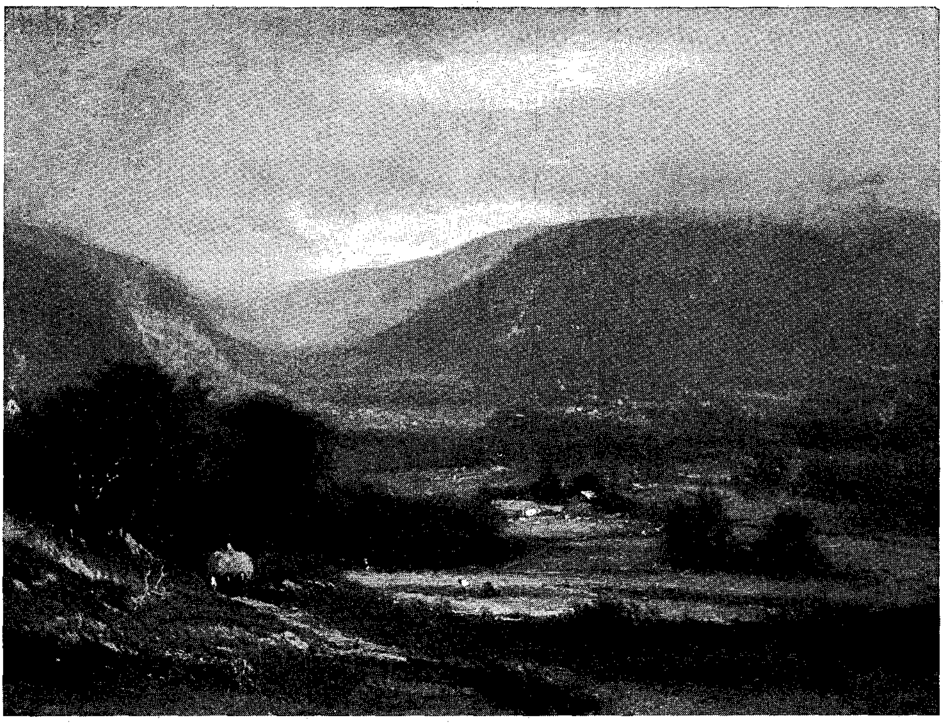
THE CLOUDED SUN

Painted in 1891. In the collection of Thomas B. Clarke, Esq., until 1889. *Sold for $6,100 to the Carnegie Art Gallery of Pittsburg, Pa.*


G. Inness 1891

THE WOOD GATHERERS

Painted in 1891. Formerly in the collection of Thomas B. Clarke, Esq.



THE DELAWARE VALLEY

Bought in 1899 for $8,100 by the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

one before him so well expressed. In other words, he brings our own familiar landscape home to us with truth and beauty. This, it may be presumed, is the function of the poet and painter in any land. It was the quality that made Dante and Goethe great, and may account for the fame of Hobbema, Constable, Daubigny—yes, and Inness.

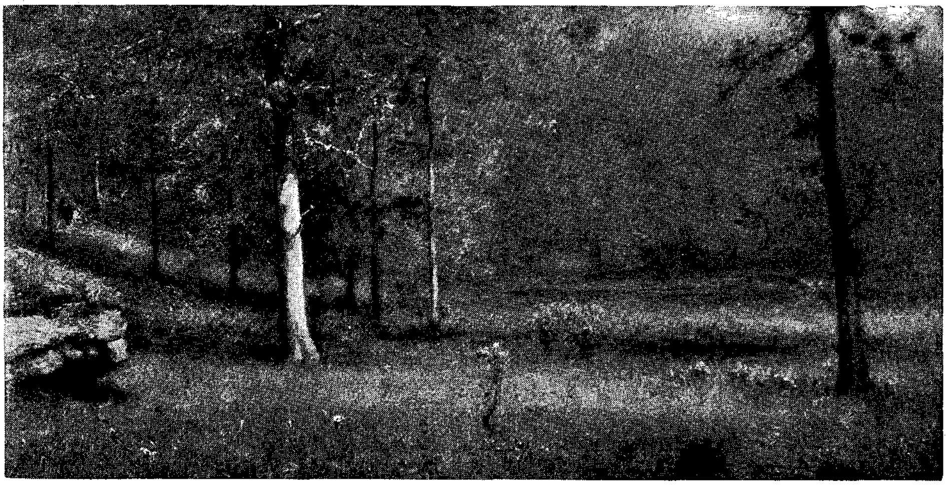
He was no follower of tradition in this. What he had to say was distinctly personal; and even his technique was largely of his own invention. When he was young, there were traditions of the Hudson River school in the air. The "mappy" landscapes of Cole and F. E. Church, with their crude color and theatrical composition, held the place of honor. Inness may have been overawed by their size at first, but he soon discovered their emptiness. They had no basis in nature, they were not the landscapes we see and know. The "Heart of the Andes" and the "Course of Empire" were only names for studio fabrications. The truly poetic landscape lay nearer home. Inness all his life painted it from his studio window or from his dooryard. This was what he called the "civilized landscape," the *paysage intime*, the familiar landscape—the one we all see and know because it has always been before us. Perhaps its very nearness has blinded us to its beauty. It is difficult for us to believe that the true poetry of the world lies close about us. We keep fancying that the romance of life is not in our native village, but in Rome or Venice or Cairo; and that the poetic landscape is not that of the wood-lot behind the house, but that of the snowy Andes or some Hesperidean Garden far removed from us. Emerson has noted that at sea every ship looks romantic but the one we sail in. Yes, but there is plenty of romance in our own ship if we have but the insight to see it; and there is abundance of poetry in the wood-lot if we have the intentness of purpose to study it out and understand it. Any one can admire the "view" from a mountain top, but it takes some imagination to see beauty in the quiet meadow. And after you have seen it, it takes a great deal of labor and skill to tell what you have seen. Wordsworth and Constable made more failures with it than successes. Just so with Inness. He shot wide of the mark innumerable times; but when he hit, it was with very decided effect.

The love for the familiar landscape was with Inness from his boyhood. To be sure, there was a period when he coquetted with the classic. When in Italy, he saw much of Claude, Poussin, and Salvator Rosa; but it is difficult to see any trace of them in his pictures. He was, possibly, impressed, but he did not wish to follow. In 1854, when he first saw the Fontainebleau-Barbizon pictures, he was decidedly enthusiastic. Millet he thought a demigod, Daubigny and Rousseau were the perfect recorders of the impression, and Corot he believed the epitome of fine sentiment. How did it happen that Inness was so taken with these French painters? Because they were painters of the *paysage intime*; they had done in France just what he had sought to do in America; they had abandoned the grandiloquent classic landscape and put in its place the familiar landscape of Fontainebleau forest and the plain of Barbizon. Naturally enough, there was affinity between the American and the Frenchmen. They were striving for similar results. Had Inness been born in France, no doubt he would have been a member of the Rousseau-Dupré group.

But the point is worth emphasizing that he did not belong to that group, that he did not follow them or copy them in any way. The aim was a common one, in that they all opposed the spectacular landscape in favor of "the civilized landscape;" but Inness, for his part, did not work after the French formulas. His manner was not that of Rousseau or Corot or Daubigny, but of Inness. The theme, the work, and the worker were all original, all of the soil, and all sufficient unto the designed purpose.

We are now, perhaps, in a position to answer that oft-asked question, "What does Inness stand for in American art?" The answers to it have been many and various. Some painters, perhaps, think him great because he composed or handled in a certain way, or used certain colors or canvases or brushes; others may think he holds high rank because they have heard him called "the master," and fancy he was an exceptionally fine technician; but possibly those who come hereafter may think of him as a leader, the one man who painted and established the *paysage intime*, the familiar landscape, here in America. This was the supreme service that Rousseau, Dupré, and Daubigny did for France and French landscape. And as they are ranked there as the discoverers of Fontainebleau and a new world in landscape, so Inness must be ranked here as the discoverer of the American meadow and woodland—a new realm of beauty. It is possibly his most lasting title to fame.

And, in flat contradiction of theories about the cosmopolitan quality of modern art, all the Fontainebleau men were really provincial in what they produced. Corot painted Ville d'Avray, Rousseau and Diaz did Fontainebleau, and Daubigny the Seine and the Marne. None of their work will stand for the south or east of France, none of it will travel beyond France. It



SUMMER SILENCE

Painted in 1892. Now in the collection of James W. Ellsworth, Esq.

is localized about Paris. Just so with the work of Inness. It is emphatically American, but limited to the North Atlantic States. The moods and appearances of nature which he portrayed are peculiar to the region lying east of the Alleghanies. In his pictures the light and coloring, the forms and drifts of clouds, the appearances of air, mists, hazes, the trees and hills, the swamps and meadows, may be recognized as belonging to New Jersey or New York or New England; but none of them belongs to Minnesota or Louisiana or California. He pictured the American landscape more completely, perhaps, than any other painter before or since his time; but his *paysage intime* is, nevertheless, limited as regards its range of subject.

Nor would we have it otherwise. All the masters of art have been provincial so far as subject goes. Titian and Velasquez, Homer and Boccaccio, Burns and Wordsworth, never cared to go beyond their own bailiwicks for material. And Inness—though he may not rank with those just mentioned—found all the material he needed within fifty miles of New York. It was the original discovery of this material, his point of view regarding it, what he did with it, and what he made us see in it, that gives him high rank in the history of American art.

The Hand that Rules the World

By J. F. Farrell

NATURE was never a finical housekeeper; and when she was setting the continent in order for the family to move in, she forgot to clear up a great windrow of refuse swept aside by one of her brooms, which extended in a long ridge of boulders and gravelly drift from nobody knew where, across the Mason farm and into the Ten-Mile Woods farther than the three Mason boys had ever followed it.

All the gravel, clay, and small stones had been washed out where the ridge crossed the river, and only the large boulders remained tumbled together in the river-bed. The river talked pleasantly as it flowed among these rocks; and the Masons could tell just what kind of weather was coming by the sound of its voice, and ever so many other things. When the water was low in summer-time, it was easy enough for an active boy with a jumping-stick to cross the river on the boulders at the upper edge of the rapids; and who was going to walk a mile and a half down to the bridge and a mile and three-quarters back again on the other side when you could skip straight over in five minutes?

Of course it was dangerous; but it was not Mrs. Mason's way to worry about the boys and lay grievous commands on them that they would be cruelly tempted to disobey. Even if she had felt afraid of the shadow of imaginary dangers, she would not have engaged in a perpetual struggle to maintain her authority. But instead of an enemy the river appeared to her a valuable friend and ally. Before the boys could walk she tied them to the end of the clothes-line and threw them in the river every day, when the water was not freezing cold, and laughingly encouraged them to splash and paddle to their heart's content; and when they were old enough to stray away from the dooryard they were as much at home in the water as on the land.

It was the same with guns and shooting. Living on the edge of the Great North Woods, where all sorts of small game still abounded, the boys wanted guns long before it was safe for them to handle deadly weapons or to stray into the wilderness, where one could travel a hundred miles in some directions without seeing a house.

So she set up a target, and kept the score for them; and when Enoch Smith and Johnny Hill and Billy Thompson heard the Mason boys banging away against the face of the ridge, they would rush wildly for such firearms as they were allowed to use and come over on the run. If there were disputes, Mrs. Mason settled them so justly according to the law and the evidence that all six of the boys were satisfied, and this led to the establishment of a sort of primitive court of appeals.

"Well, I don't care what you say, I'm

going to ask Mrs. Mason," got to be the wind-up of nearly all the disputes among boys of twelve or under in the scattered neighborhood. And Mrs. Mason was never too busy to sit right down, wherever she was, and listen to the story. When she was in possession of all the facts, "Now let's see what the principle is that you are trying to set up, Jimmy," she would say; and when the principle was disentangled and clearly stated, her "Do you think that is right?" or "Would you want Enoch or Billy or my Benny to do that way by you?" settled the business on the spot. Generally the claim, when clearly stated and applied to something else, was so preposterous that everybody laughed; the aggressor shamefacedly protested that if he had seen it in that light he wouldn't have insisted on it, and the dispute evaporated. If a boy was stubborn after the others were all convinced that he was wrong, he simply was made to take his own medicine—the principle was applied to him in all possible ways—which speedily brought him to terms.

The farm was not very productive, and the father had always been obliged to follow other pursuits. He was a stonemason by trade, and in summer-time was employed at the quarries, twenty-five miles away, just over the line, and it was not convenient for him to come home, except to stay over Sunday once in five or six weeks. In the winter he "went into the woods" with all the other able-bodied men of the township; and his family saw him no more till the rafts came down in the spring. So the mother had to be father as well, and the boys very early in life had to learn to work, in order to help her with the chores. There were the cows and sheep and hens to feed, water to draw, wood to bring in, and fifty other tasks that they were ambitious to be doing as soon as they were big enough to walk steadily with a two-quart pail or reach around one or two sticks of wood. They helped her, and then she played with them at mending fences or weeding the garden. And, oh! what splendid days they had when the wild berries ripened and a harvest had to be gathered to dry for the whole year! Tramps had never been heard of, and it was safe to leave Grandma Mason alone several hours when there was no fire in the house.

She was almost blind; and the boys led her about the place for exercise every day. This was such an honor that they had to be assigned in routine for the duty, like little soldiers; else they fought behind the shed when one crowded into place at her side too often. Once there he was safe, for nobody would disturb Grandma by quarreling at her elbow. But vengeance waited for the selfish one who stole the other's turn too frequently. So the mother took the matter in hand, and appointed them regularly to serve in turn, and after that there was peace.

In the late autumn, after the flurry and excitement of the father's fitting out and departure for the lumber camps, they all fell to and battened up everything tight and snug for the long winter siege, for unless there was a thaw and a sudden freeze to form a snow-crust they were likely to be snowbound for two or three months.

Deacon Smith's house, where Enoch lived, was the only one in sight; and it was understood that if Mrs. Mason hung out a red flag from the gable that notched the drifts among the cedars and spruces over on the ridge, her neighbors were to break a road and bring the doctor forthwith; for Grandma Mason was old and feeble, and something might happen to her any day. Sickness for the rest of the family could scarcely be imagined.

But something else happened one winter. That was the year when there was a failure or embezzlement or some kind of rascality or bad management at the quarry, and the father lost nearly all of his summer's work. The provisions gave out in midwinter; and there was no money. Credit, of course, could have been asked, with no danger of refusal—for everybody knew Nathaniel Mason would pay his debts, if he sold himself into slavery—but how could he recover from the setback of his loss, if all he earned in the woods had to go for grocery bills in the spring?

There was corn in the crib, with a few bushels of beans, and Nat could fish through the ice successfully when he could get down to the river. The cows went dry. The hens stopped laying—all but one who knew Grandma *must* be provided for. Could they live on such rations for ten or twelve weeks and keep their health?

Mrs. Mason watched the boys anxiously; but one week, and two, and three, went by with nothing but bean-broth and bannocks, hulled corn, and an occasional baked fish; and they were as fat and healthy as little cubs. So her scruples vanished, and no signal for communication with the outside world was hung out at the attic window.

Mrs. Mason had foreseen how it would be; and she had saved a small quantity of fine white flour, a few pounds of meat, some sugar and tea, and a little jar of preserves; and Old Speckle's eggs were hoarded like diamonds. Grandma must not know. Spartan fare was not good for her, and she would have divided the last morsel of her goodies—would not have eaten a bit of them if she had supposed the others did not fare as well.

About the first of March Deacon Smith waded and wallowed through, somehow, and stood in the shed, caked and powdered with snow to the shoulders, while the boys brushed off the thickest of it with brooms. Then he went into the kitchen and solemnly unloaded the most amazing quantity of cookies, doughnuts, gingerbread, and *cake* with *raisins in it*, out of the many pockets of the two great coats that he wore. The boys looked. They almost forgot; for they had been weeks and weeks without sweets. Then they fled to the barn, and cuddled in a warm hay-nest till their mother called them in to take leave of their visitor. When he was gone Mrs. Mason divided the doughnuts, which were not good for Grandma, evenly between them, and ate her share honestly with the rest. With this welcome addition to their supplies they got through the time till the maple sap began to run, and one of the cows found a bossy-calf that generously divided his rations with his playmates, and the hens laid eggs enough to exchange for other things that were needed. And Grandma never knew a word about the hard times.

But of all the anecdotes that were passed on to me about Aunt Sophia Mason, as everybody called her, I think the one in regard to Benny's accident made the most vivid impression.

One summer the boys had to clear a certain piece of ground. The large timber had all been removed, and they could readily handle the saplings and underbrush that remained. But the clearing was some distance from the house, and there is always danger in chopping wood. So Mrs. Mason gave each of the boys a strong bandage rolled tightly around a wad of lint. Then she put them through a drill of make-believe accidents ever so many times before sending them out to work in the clearing.

Benny was needed to chop wood at the house one day, and when Nat and Rodney had shouldered their axes, with a fine manly air, and disappeared over the ridge, he fell to work at the woodpile before the shed. Perhaps he hurried too fast, for he wanted to finish the task his mother had set him as soon as possible, in order to work with his brothers; but axes will glance sometimes in the hands of veteran wood-choppers. Benny's ax glanced that morning, he never knew why or how, and laid open the side of his bare foot.

"Oh, mother, *mother!*" he screamed, bounding into the kitchen, "I've cut my foot! It's bleeding awful!" and, seizing her apron, he tried to drag it off to wind around his foot.

"There, there, Benny! Don't make such a fuss." The voice was exactly as usual. "It's lucky you did it here instead of out yonder in the clearing. Where's your bandage? Sit down and do it up the way I showed you."

Benny sat down obediently, and snatched the roll of bandage from his pocket.

"Quiet, Benny! Don't lose the pins."

He stuck the two large pins in a crack between the boards of the floor, for he had been told not to lay them down.

"Now the lint. Put it in the cut, Benny."

The boy had never seen blood run like that—in little spurting jets, and there was such a lot of it. The puddle was stealing away across the floor, and his mother had to pull three braided rugs out of the way. He could smell it, too, and it made him deathly sick. His hands faltered; the bandage dropped in a loose coil; the wad of lint fell from his slackening grasp.

"Oh, mother! You do it up. *I* can't."

He looked up appealingly. Was that his mother, with blazing, wrathful eyes, so white that her face shone, two terrible lines between the black brows gathered in an ominous frown? But more terrible than all was the calm mouth, quietly and accurately closed, not excitedly clenched and puckered; there was no occasion for excitement. How coolly she spoke!

"My son, must I tell your father when he comes home that you are a coward?"

The word stung like the cut of a whip. Benny shut his teeth hard, jammed the lint home, wound and wound the length of bandage around his foot, felt blindly for the pins, and stuck one of them solidly in place. Then he fell back; but he did not reach the floor. He was twelve years old, but his mother swept him to her bosom as though he had been a baby.

How she mothered him then! Her brave, brave Benny! Her own precious, splendid, manly boy! Other battles were fought and won in the years that followed, and their rewards were good to his soul; but when Benny was gray I heard him tell this story, and he declared that no reward for well-doing had ever seemed quite so all-sufficient as that generous outpouring of hoarded mother-love.

All of those boys became greatly distinguished men. Nat and Rodney went "out West," as their admiring former neighbors will tell you; and, seemingly without effort, just by being what they were, they won the highest honors in the gift of the great commonwealth where they lived and wrought. Benny became a great preacher, and he was regarded as easily first among the brilliant divines of a large city.

But sorrow came to him, and grief sat as a familiar guest at his fireside all the closing years of his life. He did his work faithfully to the end, though many times he must have set his hand to the present duty and accomplished it by sheer force of will, while the hot blood was pouring from gaping wounds in his soul, wounds such as only they of his own household could have inflicted, and he felt as he did when he bandaged that foot in the kitchen of the little old farmhouse among the cedars on the ridge.

Morning and Evening

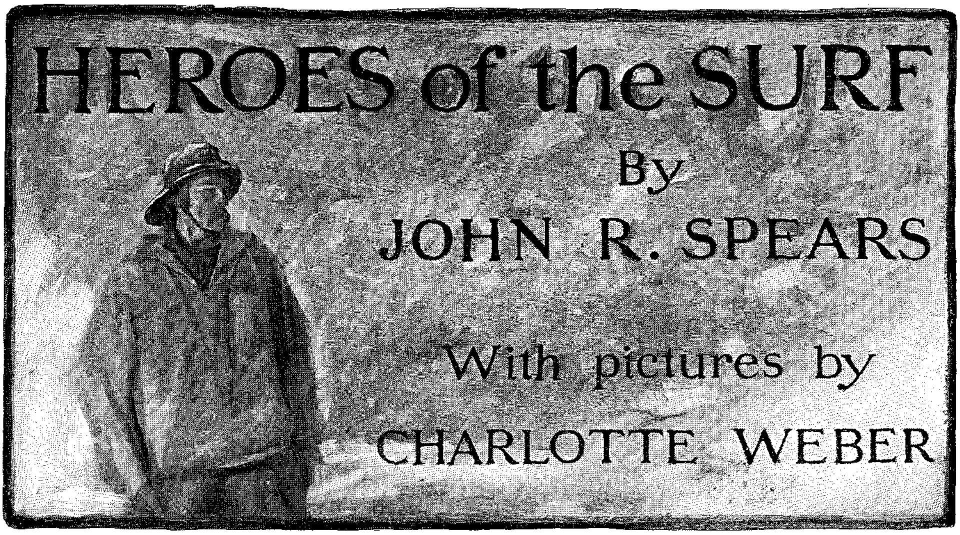
By Bliss Carman

When the morning wind comes up the mountain,
Stirring all the beech-groves of the valley,
And, before the paling stars have vanished,
The first tawny thrush disturbs the twilight
With his reed-pipe eerie, calm, and golden—
The earth-music marvelous and olden—

Then good fortune enters at my doorway,
And my heart receives the guest called Gladness;
For I know it is that day of summer
When I shall behold your face ere nightfall,
And this earth, as never yet in story,
Ledge to hillcrest dyed in purple glory.

When the evening breath draws down the valley,
And the clove is full of dark blue shadows
Moving on the mountain-wall, just silvered
By the large moon lifted o'er the earth-rim,
At the moment of transported being,
When soul gathers what the eyes are seeing,

Sense is parted like a melted rain-mist,
And our mortal spirits run together,
Saying, "O incomparable comrade!"
Saying, "O my lover, how good love is!"
Then the twilight falls; the hill-wind hushes;
Note by note once more the cool-voiced thrushes!



HEROES of the SURF

By

JOHN R. SPEARS

With pictures by

CHARLOTTE WEBER

THIS is a story for a stormy night. For while the reader listens to the splash of the sleet and the howl of the gale, the men of the life-saving service—our heroes of the surf—in a procession that is almost unbroken, are patrolling the storm-swept beaches from Quoddy Head to Cape Fear, from Oswego to Duluth, and from Peterson's Point to the Golden Gate. And it is when the storm is most deadly—when the sands are slippery with ice, or clogged with snow—that the life-savers are most alert. In the annals of all the Nation there are no stories more full of interest than those of the men whose life is given to this work.

The story of the organized life-savers begins in 1786, when Noyes, the blind physician of Boston, invited some of his fellow-townsmen to the "Bunch of Grapes Tavern," and there induced them to organize the "Humane Society of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts," with the Hon. James Bowdoin as President. This Society was distinguished in various ways. On the desolate beaches of Massachusetts, beginning on Lovell's Island, in 1786, it built small huts in which people who escaped ashore from wrecked ships might find shelter, and in these huts it placed fuel, blankets, and food. It built lifeboats, and placed the first constructed at Cohasset, in October, 1807. It also gave rewards to every person who especially distinguished himself in saving human life.

This Society was composed of people who were the social leaders of the Commonwealth and of the Nation. Once a year a public meeting was held in some church, and after a sermon, the Society, with invited guests, visited the rescue huts on the islands in the harbor to see that the supplies were in order. This cruise was the chief social event of the year. The Legislature adjourned to attend it, and the harbor forts fired cannon in honor of the Society. Perhaps I may be permitted to observe, aside, that the chief annual social event of modern days in New York is not a meeting of a humane society.

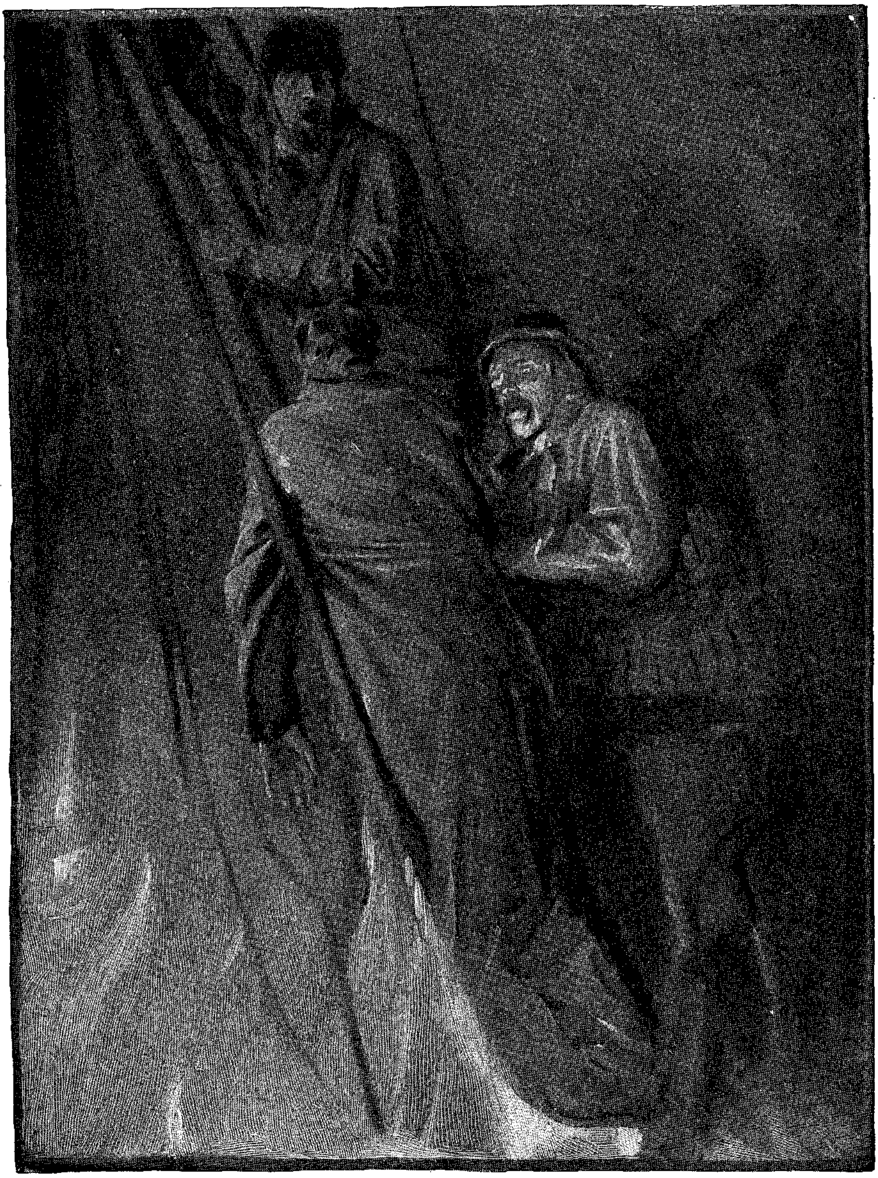
The date at which a lifeboat was placed at Cohasset is notable, because it was not until seventeen years later (1824) that "The Royal National Institution for the Preservation of Life from Shipwreck" was organized in England. The people of Massachusetts led the civilized world by seventeen years in the organized work of this kind. I believe that the Chinese (heathen that they were) had well-organized life-saving stations floating on their rivers some hundreds of years earlier, but it is pleasant to think that Americans led all civilized peoples in this matter.

It is also pleasant to note that the Massachusetts Society gave medals to the heroes who risked life to save the shipwrecked—it appealed to and cultivated the love of honor. But, sad to relate, the people of Massachusetts had a monopoly of this kind of work in the United States for thirty years.

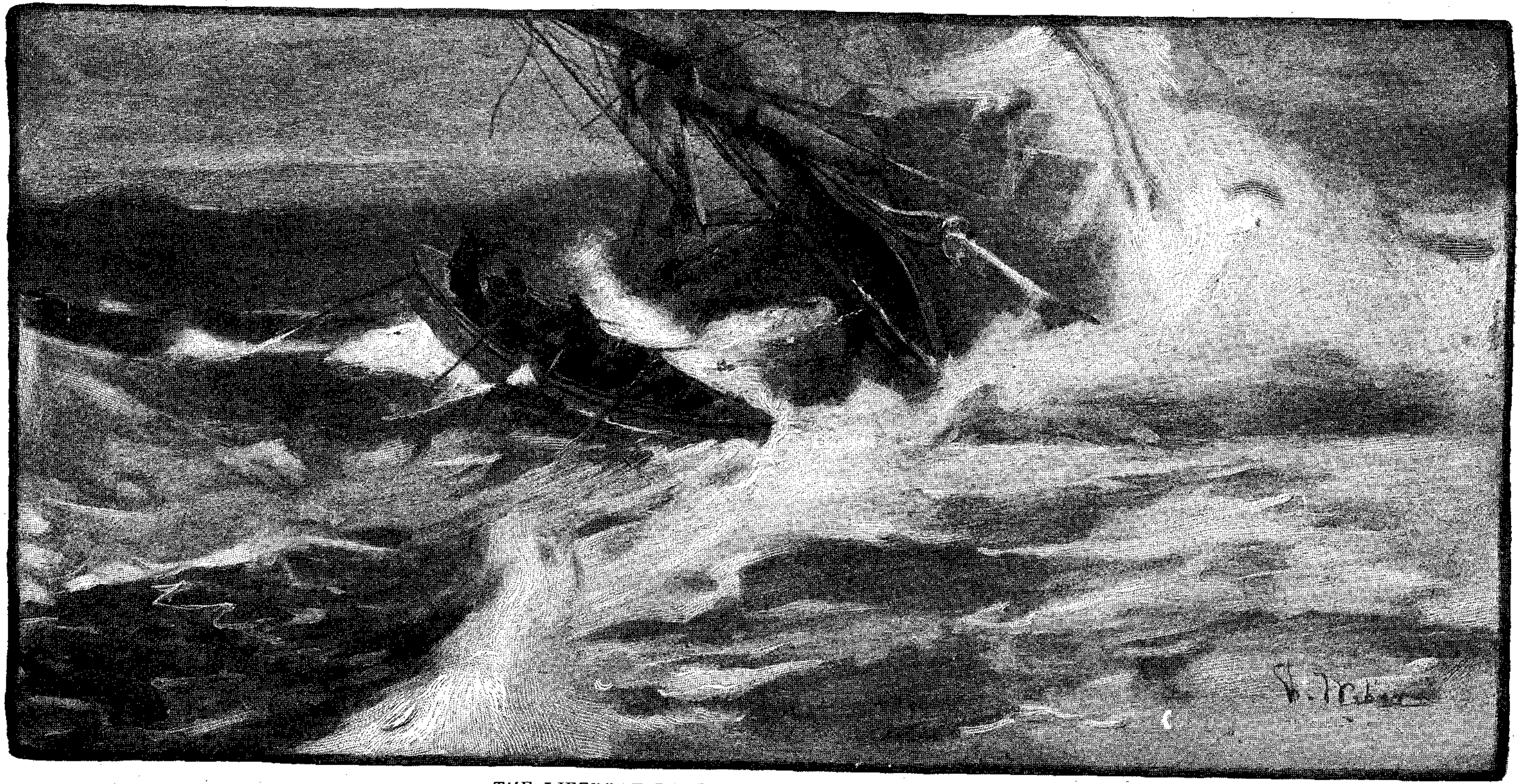
On the morning of Jauuary 2, 1837,

the bark Mexico, loaded with immigrants, drifted ashore on Hempstead beach, Long Island. The courageous people of that region, under the lead of Raynor Rock Smith, launched a fishing-boat, and, pulling through the mush ice that clogged the breakers, rescued seven men and a boy. The remainder of the ship's company, to the number of 115, were driven on deck by the water that filled the hold. When on deck, the spray turned to ice as it fell upon them, and they all perished while gazing at a huge fire that was kindled on shore.

No wreck has ever stirred the people as that of the Mexico did. A lifeboat, built by popular subscription, was placed on Rockaway Beach a few months later. Engravings portraying the scene were on sale from the Atlantic to the Mississippi. The story of the wreck was discussed in Congress ten years after it occurred, and on February 25, 1847, at the instance of Robert McClelland, of Michigan, an item of $5,000 was added to the Lighthouse Bill, in order to furnish "lighthouses on the Atlantic coast with means for render-



SURFMAN HATCH RESCUING THE SAILORS FROM THE SCHOONER MINCH



THE LIFEBOAT TAKING SAILORS FROM A WRECK ing assistance to shipwrecked mariners." It is worth remembering, too, that when arguing in favor of the item, McClelland appealed solely to the humanity of his fellow-Congressmen. The appropriation, he said, "would save annually from fifty to one hundred lives. Was *this*, in the gentlemen's view, a matter of no importance?"

Congressman William A. Newell, of New Jersey, took up the idea in 1848, and on August 9, 1849, got a bill through Congress by which the sum of $10,000 was appropriated to provide "surf-boats, rockets, carronades, and other necessary apparatus"—such as had been found useful in Massachusetts—for the Jersey beach. A reference to the wreck of the Mexico was one of the arguments used to pass the bill.

In this way, by providing apparatus for the use of volunteer life-savers, the National Government began work in the storm surf. Ship merchants and seafaring people became greatly interested. With additional appropriations, boats were distributed freely along the coast. But in time the boats were found to be too heavy. Many had been placed where they could not be reached when most needed. Wrecks occurred between lifeboat stations (the Powhatan on April 15, and the New Era on November 13, 1854, for instance), and hundreds of lives were lost. It became apparent, eventually, that the system was little better than worthless; but in the meantime Congress had authorized the Treasury Department to employ a keeper for each regular station, on a moderate salary, and the politicians had found the keepers useful. Consequently the system remained alive, if moribund, until 1871, when it was reorganized. A superintendent (Sumner I. Kimball) was appointed, and in the course of a year crews of trained men were employed under salary at several stations.

Immediately the alongshore politicians proceeded to fill the crews with heelers. Men who could not handle an oar—cripples and degenerates even—were placed on the rolls; but by 1876 a non-partisan and merit-only system, established by the superintendent, prevailed, and from that time on the United States has employed thoroughly trained men to save life.

With the inauguration of the merit system the heroic deeds of the life-savers began. The annual reports of the service, published as separate volumes, number twenty-six. Bound in coffin black, and placed on a library shelf, their appearance is forbidding; but one may search the libraries of the world without finding twenty-six other volumes containing as many hero tales as do these reports of the United States Life-Saving Service.

Consider the story of Surfman Hatch, of the Cleveland crew, at the wreck of the schooner Minch, on the night of October 3, 1883. The schooner sank in shoal water off Cleveland, and after exhausting labor, lasting nearly all night, all the crew save two were taken from the icy fore rigging by means of the breeches-buoy. The two remaining men were in the mizzen rigging. It was impossible for the life-savers to go aft along the deck to the mizzenmast, because the deck was under water and the storm waves were sweeping across it. They could not go aft by means of the stays because there were no stays from the mizzen mast to the main. It was a case so desperate that all of the life-savers except Hatch gave it up in despair and went ashore.

But in those desperate conditions Hatch found his opportunity. Going over the stays to the mainmast, Hatch found that the mainsail had been lowered, and that the main boom was swaying to and fro with the roll of the schooner as each wave passed. He knew that the end of the boom passed close to the mizzen rigging. Working his way out on that boom, in spite of the wind, Hatch rose up as it swayed toward the lee rail, and, leaping into the night, caught the mizzen rigging. And he arrived just in time to save the two sailors there from falling overboard. By lending a hand and by rousing their courage, Hatch sustained the sailors until daylight came, when a line was fired to the mizzen rigging and all were taken ashore in the breeches-buoy.

When the schooner H. P. Kirkham was wrecked on the Rose and Crown shoal, fifteen miles out to sea from the Caskata station, Nantucket, on January 21, 1892, the off-shore gale that was raging was so fierce and the sea so ugly that an ocean-going tug, after steaming some distance out toward the wreck, turned back to port. But the Caskata life-savers launched forth with their surf-boat, took off the crew of the Kirkham, and then, anchoring on the shoal, waited until the tide turned to start for home. It was a midwinter gale. Those who have seen the Nantucket shoals at such a time may be able to imagine the plight of these men in a boat that was now overloaded, but no one else can. Yet, to the surprise of the old whalemen of Nantucket, they reached home, and but one life-saver died from the effects of the exposure.

Then there was the wreck of the schooner A. B. Goodman, on the Diamond Reef, off Cape Hatteras. Two currents meet off Cape Hatteras, and the broken water on the off-shore bars in a whole-sail breeze only is enough to dismay an ordinary seaman; but when a gale rages, the swirling plunge of the surf is appalling even to stoutest hearts. As they looked away across those seas at the Goodman, the life-savers believed that death awaited them. One of their number was therefore chosen to remain on shore, and to him each of the others made his will orally. Then they pulled out to sea, and they saved the crew of the Goodman and themselves.

One of the most picturesque incidents in the history of the service on the Great Lakes occurred during the famous gale of November 17, 1886. The steamer Robert Wallace and the huge tow-barge David Wallace stranded at night in the breakers six miles east of Marquette, where the waves made a clean breach over them, and each wave left a coating of ice as it passed. The next day people of Marquette who braved the storm in order to look at the breakwater and the lighthouse that had been wrecked by the seas during the night saw the stranded vessels through rifts in the storm, and rescuers were soon on their way, with boats and ropes and materials for a fire.

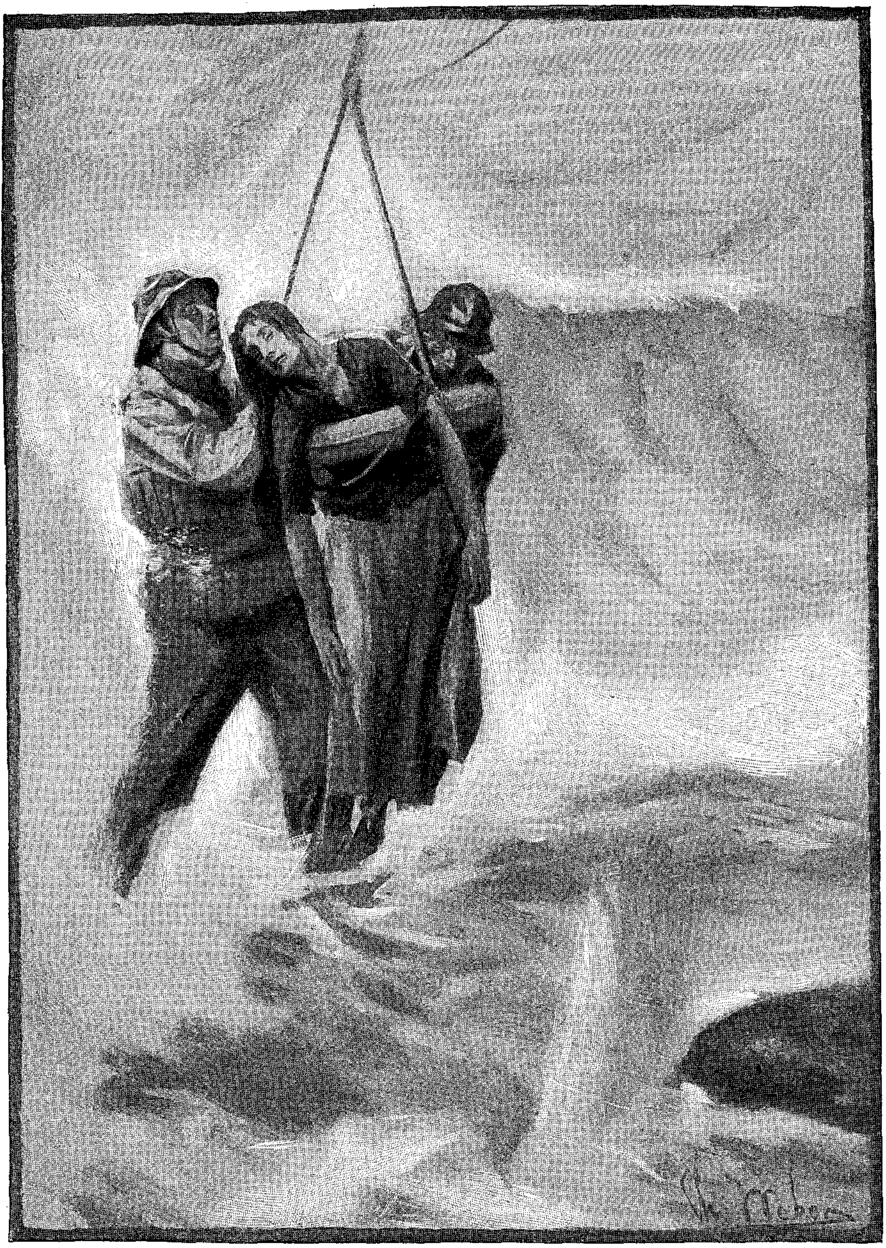
These rescuers included some of the bravest and most experienced sailors of the lakes—vessel officers who had passed through wreck experiences themselves. With unsurpassed zeal they strove all day long to reach the wrecks, but the wind, and the clinging mush ice, and the curling breakers foiled them. Even a powerful tug that tried to approach from the sea failed, and the crews were left freezing on the crumbling hulks.

Finally, toward night, one man, Captain John Frink, remembered that a life-saving crew was stationed on the west side of the peninsula that projects into the lake half-way to Duluth. The life-savers were six miles from the town of Houghton, but Houghton was connected with Marquette by rail. Seeing that the people in the two wrecks would inevitably perish if left there much longer, Captain Frink went to the railroad station, wired to Houghton for a messenger to go after the life-saving crew, and then arranged with the railroad officials for a special train to bring the crew and their apparatus to Marquette.

It was 7:40 o'clock at night when a tug brought the life-savers through the driving blizzard to the dock at Houghton, but a train, with the safety-valve of the engine lifting, was in waiting, and a throng of men stood by to jump the apparatus to the car. In five minutes from the arrival of the tug the conductor leaped aboard the moving train, and it fled away at top speed, literally in a race with death. It was a race 125 miles long, and the tracks became clogged with snow, but the life-savers won. They arrived at Marquette at 11:30 o'clock, and, going to the beach, they drove their boat through the mush ice and reached the wrecks in time.

When the schooner J. O. Moss stranded four miles north of the Grand Point au Sable station, Lake Michigan, though a fierce gale was blowing, not a breaker, scarce a dash of spray, reached the shore. For the surf was covered and weighed down with mush ice—a vicious liquid, a sullen gray horror that heaves and rolls and grinds, but never splashes on the beach. To whatever it touches it clings in masses, yet Surfman Stillson waded shoulder-deep into the searing mass off the Lake Michigan beach that he might save a sailor who had tried to bring a line ashore from the stranded vessel. He came out clogged with ice, but he saved the sailor. It was not a singular case, however; many surfmen have done the same thing, though not all have escaped with their lives.

The first surfmen to lose their lives while striving to rescue a shipwrecked crew with National apparatus were John F. Jones and R. D. Parker, who were drowned at the wreck of the bark Tasso



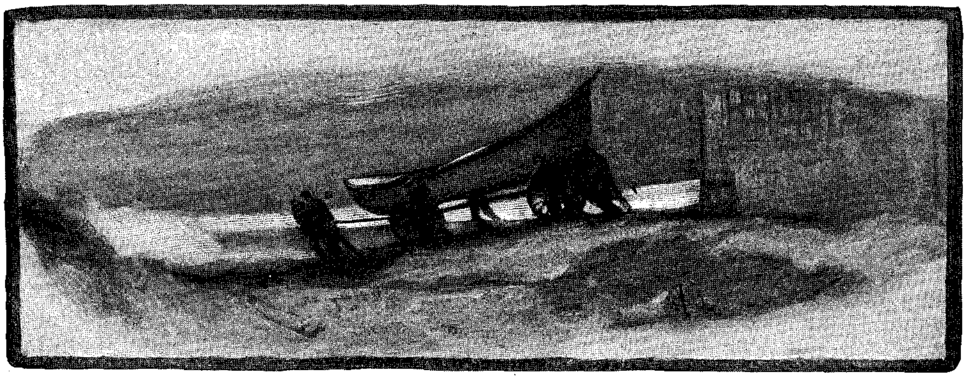
WORKING A PRIMITIVE BREECHES-BUOY THROUGH THE SURF

on the Jersey beach in 1856. The first to lose their lives in the reorganized service were the Jones Hill crew on Currituck beach. They were trying to rescue the crew of the bark Nuova Ottavia, stranded March 1, 1876, and were upset by the sailors who jumped on them in a mob as soon as the surf-boat came to the wreck. All these life-savers (seven in all) were lost.

From that time until March 17, 1902, when the crew of the Monomoy Station were lost on Handkerchief Shoal, the list of the dead who have lost their lives in efforts to save others has grown from year to year. A summary of the statistics for eighteen years shows that "the self-righting boat lost one life to every 136 saved, the surf-boat one to every 158 saved."

One might write an article solely on the shore perils of the surfmen, for they are knocked down and even tossed about by the hurricane gusts that they have to face, while on more than one occasion the sea has invaded stations, and in one case on record a crew climbed into their boat and rowed out of the station on the back of a wave that crushed open the station doors and left them no other resource.

It is a strenuous life that the men of this service live—most strenuous. Scores of vessels are warned away from reefs by the danger signals of the night patrol men every year. Hundreds of people are rescued from stranded vessels every year. One may ask, as did Congressman McClelland, "Is *this* a matter of no importance?" To that may be added the less important statement that property worth millions is saved from the wrecks with the aid of the life-savers.



RUNNING OUT THE LIFEBOAT

After All, What is the Sunday-School?

By the Rev. John H. Vincent, D.D.

IT is the Church co-operating with the Family and the Pulpit in wisely conducted conversations with individuals in the attempt to illustrate and apply the teachings of the Holy Scriptures. It is not a place for "preaching." It is not a place for the critical study of Scripture as literature. It is not a school of sacred linguistics; nor of Christian apologetics. It is not a seminary of systematic theology. Its teachers should enjoy as far as possible the best fruits of all these fields of study; but the Sunday-school is simply one of the departments of church activity that supplements the work of the family and the pulpit in the application and enforcement of the ethical and spiritual contents of the Holy Scriptures, for the promotion of a true spiritual life; and all this through personal conversation, and by the most thorough teaching processes.

It follows from this theory of the Sunday-school that the teacher should be well prepared; that he should account himself an assistant pastor; that he should know as intimately as possible the parents and the home life of his pupils. And these pupils he should know and love. His work being spiritual, he should be earnest and prayerful. To command the respect of his pupils and their parents, he should be a man of knowledge. He must be thoroughly social, since his work is chiefly conversational both in the class and in his pastoral calls. He must care for each individual, since his best work is with units. Their personal needs and peculiarities he *must* know.

A group of children, or youth, or adults in self-forgetting, absorbing devotion, as they engage in a free, fervent, practical conversation with their teacher on the theme of the day's lesson—this is a picture that fitly sets forth the simple, beautiful, and worthy mission of the Sunday-school.

Is the standard "not high enough"? I frankly confess that I know of no situation and service that require more knowledge, more resources, more tact, more earnestness.

May these church-conversation ministries be multiplied!

THE SLOVAK AND THE POLE IN AMERICA

BY EDWARD A. STEINER

THIRTY-FIVE years ago the crescent-shaped Carpathian mountains shut in their diverse Slavic families in complete isolation from one another and from the outer world. Only the young men who had been drafted into the king's army knew of that strange world which began at the margin of the village pasture and ended in some distant province of the empire. Railroads were a far-off wonder, the telegraph a myth or a mystery, and America farther away than heaven. About twenty-five years ago I saw the first Slavic emigrants returning to their native country from America; about a dozen stalwart men stepped from a third-class railway carriage at Oderberg, each one carrying a trunk trimmed with brass after the manner of the American trunk. A large delegation of peasants awaited the travelers, and had they stepped from Paradise they could not have been received with greater awe. Their trunks, their clothes, and, above all, their huge silver watches and heavy chains, were viewed by the crowd, which asked all manner of questions and received but scant replies, for our Slovaks were traveled men and rich, and could not be spoken to by every Yan, Martzin, and Pavel—the Slovak equivalent for Tom, Dick, and Harry. These first venturesome peasants came from the most impoverished and crowded portions of Hungary, populated by Poles and Slovaks, and the wealth they brought with them was real wealth, which incited others to leave home a while to gather the dollars on the other side of the Atlantic.

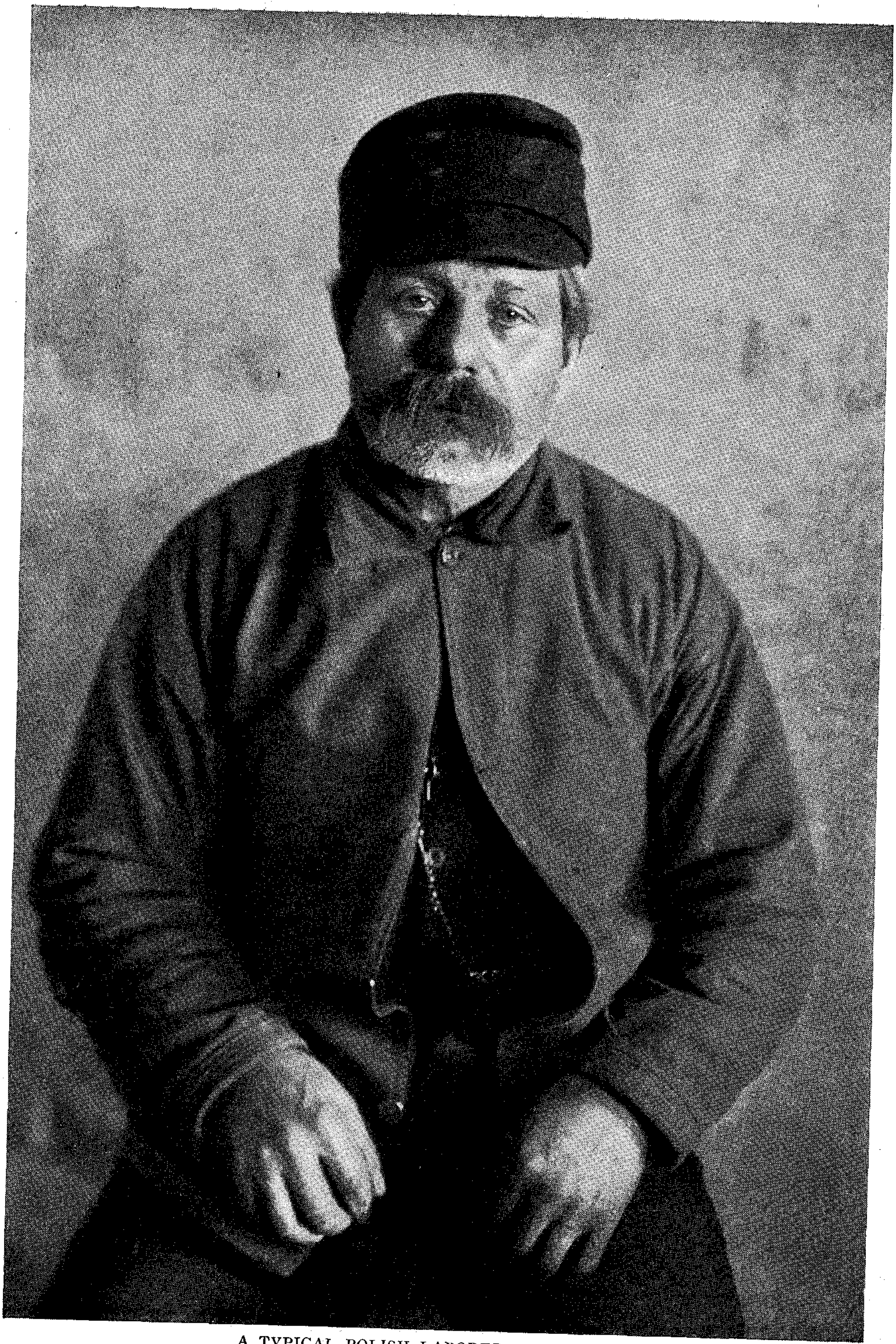
The wages in Hungary then were about fifteen cents a day, with long idle winters in which the "wolf" came very near the door of every mud hut in the village, and the report of about ten times as much a day, with bread, beans, onions, and even meat for daily diet, made the timid Slovaks bold enough to climb over the mountains which shut in their native valley to seek their Eldorado, America. The coal-mines of Pennsylvania, the steel-mills, coke-ovens, and limestone quarries of Ohio, needed their muscle, their patience, and their unvarying industry, and constant calls were made for new recruits, until the present number in this country is not far from 200,000 Slovaks and 300,000 Poles.

On board ship they are the most patient passengers, for hardships are not new to them, and the bill of fare, meager though it is, contains not a few luxuries to which their palates are strangers; if it were not for the seasickness, they would consider their ocean trip as much of a pleasure as do those of us who cross the sea for a wedding trip or a vacation. I have crossed the ocean with them ten times at least, and I have never heard a word of complaint, although their more refined traveling companions say much about their untidiness, rudeness, and other marks of semi-civilization. I have never seen one of them read a newspaper; only one man do I remember who read a book, and that was the prayer-book of the Greek Church. They leave their picturesque garb at home, and lie on the deck in all kinds of weather in all kinds of dress and undress, the women being barefooted even in winter. In conversation with the men I can never go beyond the facts that they are going to work, earn money, pay off a mortgage on a piece of land at home, or save enough money to send for Katchka or Anka to be their wedded wife. If the Slovak feels any great emotions when he reaches New York, he never expresses them; he is usually dumb from wonder and half frightened as he faces this new and busy world in which he will be but an atom or just so much horse-power. In spite of the contract labor law, he is billed to an agent in New York or taken to Pennsylvania, where his new life begins and too often ends in a coal-mine.

His home is one of many, and all alike are painted green or red—shells of buildings into which from fifteen to twenty people crowd, who are taken care of by one woman, whose husband may be the foreman of a gang and the chief beneficiary of their labor. Their competitors in the field of labor accuse them of filthiness, yet, after having walked through hundreds of these shanties, I can say that the report of untidiness among them is exaggerated; for the majority of homes are cleaner than their crowded condition would warrant, while there are not a few in which the floors are scrubbed daily, and fairly shine from cleanliness. Just as uncomplainingly as into the life on board ship, the Slovak fits into the new work, whatever it may be, and no animal ever took its burden more patiently than he does as he faces unflinchingly the hot blasts of a furnace or the dark depths of mines. He can be worked only in gangs directed by one of his number who has gathered a few crumbs of English, and who seasons them freely by those words which are usually printed in dashes. Such a thing as rebellion he does not know, as his whole past history testifies; in our strikes he is a very convenient scapegoat and not seldom a sheep led to deeds whose consequences he has not measured. In nearly every case of violence which I could trace and in which he took an active part, he was inflamed by drink which interested persons had given him.

He is considered by the tradesmen of his town to be their most honest customer, and one merchant who has dealt with the Slovaks for twelve years, who has carried them from pay-day to pay-day, and through strikes and lay-offs, told me that he had not lost one cent through them, while his losses on the other miners were from fifteen per cent. to thirty-five per cent.; and, with but slight variations, this is the testimony of all the merchants.

In no small measure this is due to their fear of law, for in Hungary every debt is collectible, and not even the homestead is exempt from the executioner. There is also no petty thieving in communities where they have lived for twenty years, and they have never been accused or even suspected of theft. As one common accusation against them is that they spend very little in this country and send most of their earnings abroad, I examined this

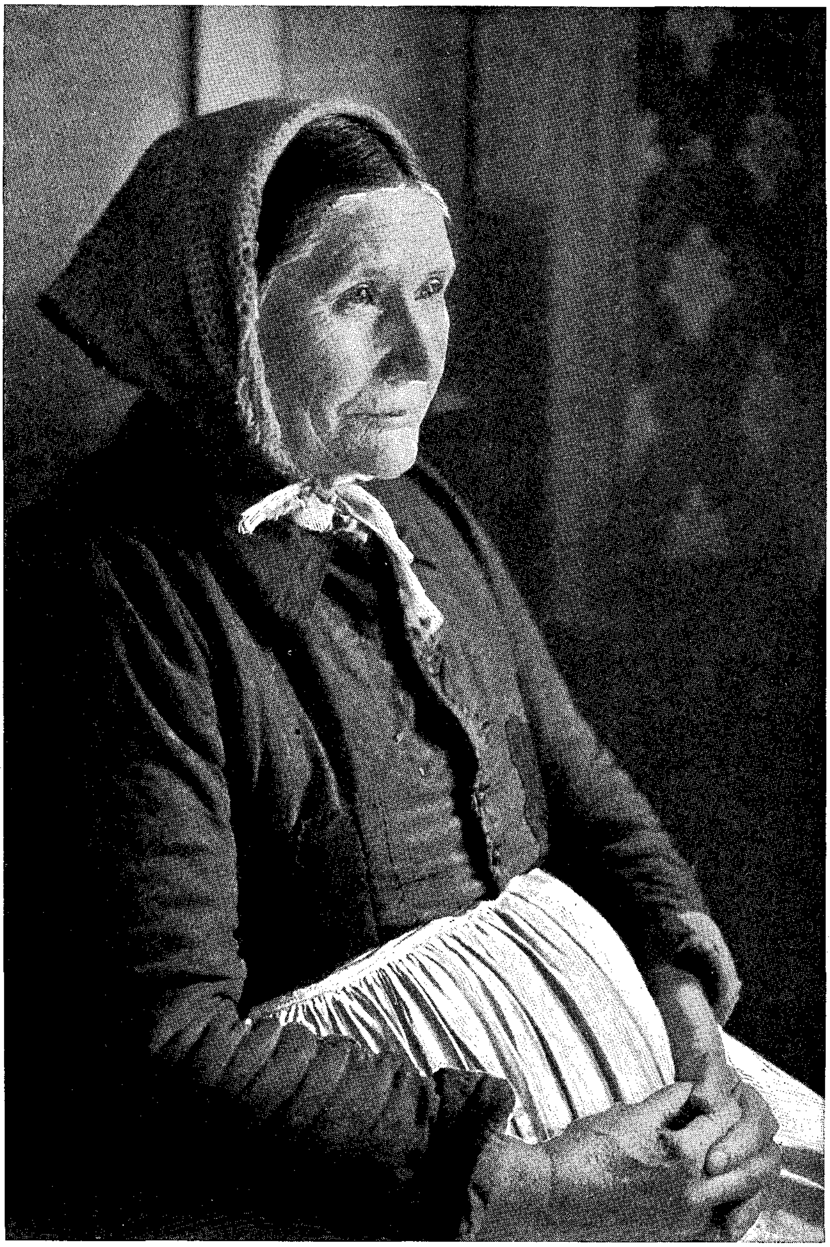


A TYPICAL POLISH LABORER OF BUFFALO

GOING HOME FROM MARKET

matter very carefully, interviewing every merchant and every class of merchants, the postmasters, and even the saloon-keepers, and they all agree that these people are fairly good customers. In visiting their homes I found that they are not lavish as to house-furnishings; the front room, which in the American household would answer for the parlor, is filled by the trunks of the boarders, and in a few cases has that beginning of American civilization, the rocking-chair. A stand with a white cloth cover holding a few knickknacks is a rarity, but exists in about five per cent. of the houses I have visited; carpets I have seen only twice, but the lace-curtain fashion has not a few imitators. Upon his bed the Slovak lavishes a great deal of money, making it his costliest piece of furniture, while his imported feather beds keep out entirely the more sanitary mattress and blankets. He does not stint himself in his food, as is commonly supposed, for he eats a good deal, although his steak, being cut from the shoulder, is cheap, and is always called "Polak steak." He eats quantities of beans, cabbage, and potatoes, and about eight dollars a month covers the board bill of an adult. He drinks too much, but drinks economically, preferring a barrel of beer for the crowd to the more expensive glass, and he carries a bottle in his hip pocket as invariably as the cowboy is supposed to carry a pistol. Instead of whisky he takes alcohol and water, which may, after all, be the same rose by another name. In buying clothing I am told that he buys the best which is fitted for his work and for his station, and to see him after working hours, cleanly washed and dressed in American fashion from the boots up to the choking collar, one would not suspect him of miserliness. He does save money, for out of an average earning of forty dollars a month he will send at least fifteen dollars to Hungary, and on pay-day the money-order window in the little post-office is crowded by these industrious toilers who have not forgotten wife, children, old parents, and old debts.

Many of them claim that they would buy houses in this country if they were assured of work, and in many places they plead that they cannot buy property because the company owns all the real estate and prefers to rent all the houses falsely called homes. The one thing which divides the Slovaks and Poles, and which agitates them very much, is their religion, and they cling tenaciously to that form of Christianity in which they were born, regarding all other people as heretics and infidels. The Poles are all Roman Catholics; the majority of Slovaks belong to the same Church; a smaller number are in the Greek Church, while the fewest are Lutherans. Many of the Roman Catholics belong to the Greek rite, and are that portion of the Church in Austria which united with Rome after the division of Poland, and which was permitted to use its own Slavic ritual and retain its married clergy. Only a portion of the Greek Church entered this union, so that nearly every community has a number of Rus-



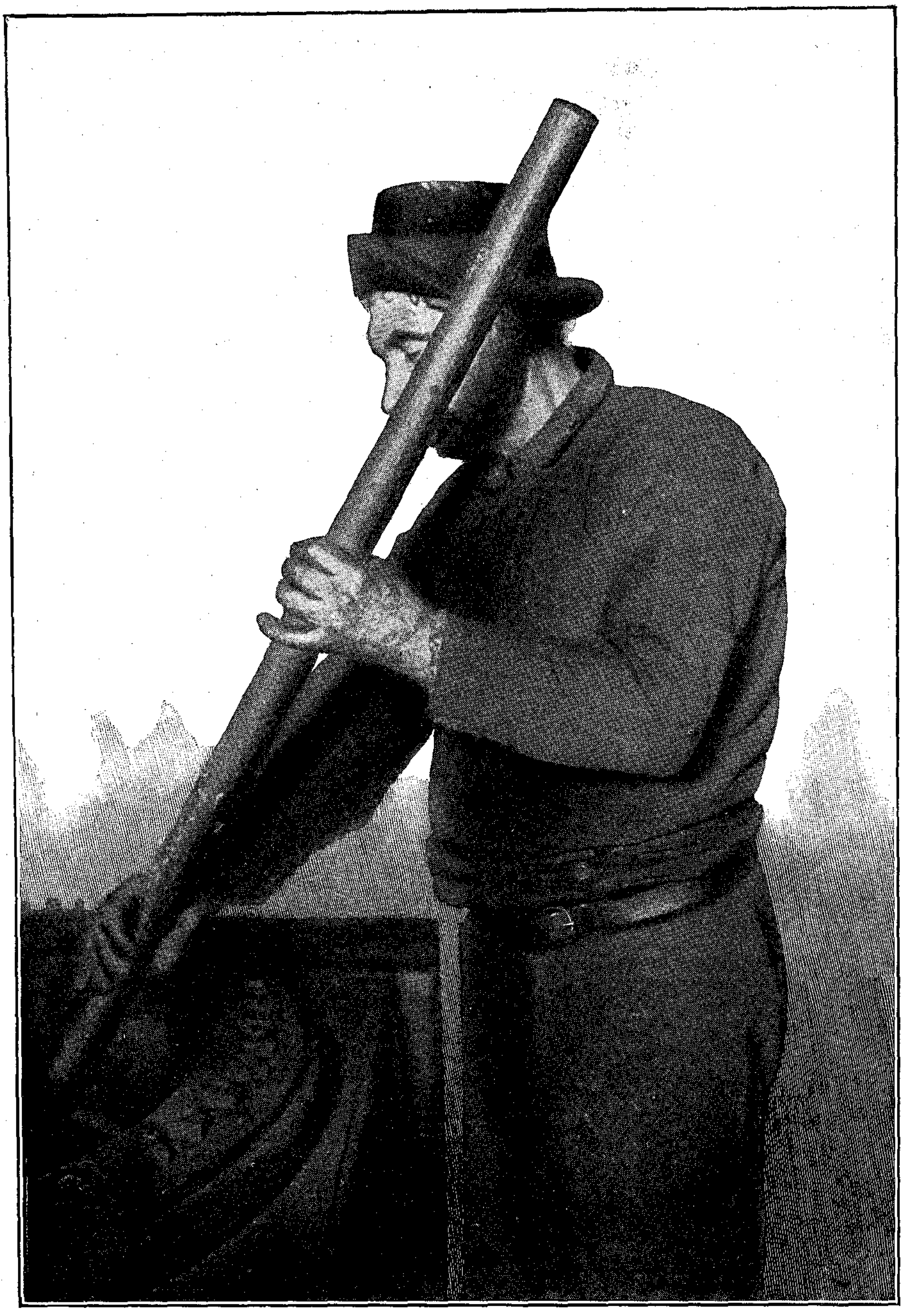
A TYPICAL POLISH WOMAN

From a photograph taken in her home.

sian Greeks, who look upon the Roman Greeks with a great deal of scorn. In Marblehead, on Lake Erie, where these Slovaks are engaged in the limestone quarries, this division was discovered after all the Greeks had built one church, that of the Roman Greeks. A few of the wiser ones who arrived in this country later were dreadfully shocked when they saw this, and in Peter Shigalinsky's saloon plans were made to gain possession of the church for the only true Greeks, the Russian; many pitched battles were fought, a long and fruitless litigation followed, and finally Peter Shigalinsky built next to his saloon a new church, whose orthodoxy is emphasized by one of the horizontal pieces of the cross slanting at a more acute angle than that of the Roman Greek church, in which of course there can be no salvation. Where they have no church of their own they worship with the English or Germans if they are Romanists, but in many cases the priests told me that they are not wanted and must keep to one corner of the building. There are not priests enough to shepherd them, and those they have are in many cases unfitted for the task. It is asserted that the Lutheran pastors are no better, and count for little or nothing in making these people Christians and citizens. Various denominations, notably the Congregationalists and Presbyterians, are engaged in the difficult work of evangelizing these people, and it is a gigantic task undertaken with little money, but wherever it is successful it means the winning of men for America and for the kingdom of God. They are naturally suspicious of strangers, but grateful for every kindness, and once a door is opened to their hearts it is never closed again. Unfortunately, their speech shuts them out from the touch with American people of the same community, but there are avenues of approach in which only one language is spoken—the language of love and kindness; one noble American woman whom I know ministers to them by nursing them and suggesting simple remedies when they are ill, and has thus become no small factor in their social and religious redemption. Thousands of such doors are opened which are closed to the professional missionary, although many men of common sense, or, as in many cases, women of consecrated common sense, have accomplished much, and are daily enlarging the kingdom of God on earth.

Of literature little or nothing enters the mining villages; a Slovak weekly comes to one or two homes and that is all. The Slovak lives an isolated life, sublimely ignorant of "wars and rumors of wars;" his breakfast is not spoiled by the glaring headlines of the daily paper, nor does the magazine or novel press upon him the problems of human society. He knows his camp, his mine, his shop, and though he lives in America and in the most busy States in the Union, his world now is not much bigger than it was when its horizon touched his village pastures. As yet he is not a factor politically, though the political "boss" finds him the best kind of material, for he is bought and sold without knowing it, and votes for he knows not whom. At Braddock, Pa., it was told me that he is sold first to the Democrats and then to the Republicans, and afterwards is naïve enough to come back to the Democrats and tell of his bargain, willing to be bought back into his political family. Like almost all foreigners, he is a Democrat by instinct or by association, one scarcely knows which, although he is usually anything that a drink of liquor makes him. I asked one his political faith, "Are you a Democrat?" "No, me Catholic—Greek, not Russian," was the reply. "What are your politics?" I asked a number. "Slovak," was the invariable answer. Not twenty per cent. of those I interviewed knew the name of our President, not two per cent. the name of the Governor of the State in which they were residing. The Slovak does not know the meaning of the word citizen, and the limited franchise in Hungary is exercised for him by those wiser than himself; he is just force and muscle, with all the roots of his heart in the little village across the sea, and with his brain wherever the stronger brain leads him. As a rule, he does not plan to remain in this country, and I doubt whether the number of those who expect to do so exceeds six per cent.

He is quiet and peaceable except on feast days or when Yanko and Katchka have their wedding day, and then you may hear the voice of the bridegroom lifted in a song about the "sweetheart he



A POLISH LABORER IN A DYE WORKS IN BUFFALO

is so glad to have and wouldn't sell to any one," while the hoarse violin, the squeaky clarionet, and the grunting bass-viol come in lingeringly, "No, not to any one, to any one." If you enter the house of the bride, you will find it full of sweltering humanity, while within a small circle a dozen couples dance a mazurka, up and down and down and up, while the bridegroom sings and the fiddler plays about the "sweetheart he is so glad to have and wouldn't sell to any one, no, not to any one."

They dance thus three days at least, the wedding having taken place after the first day's dancing; the ceremony is performed in the little Greek church, with

POLISH WOMAN SEWING IN HER HOME

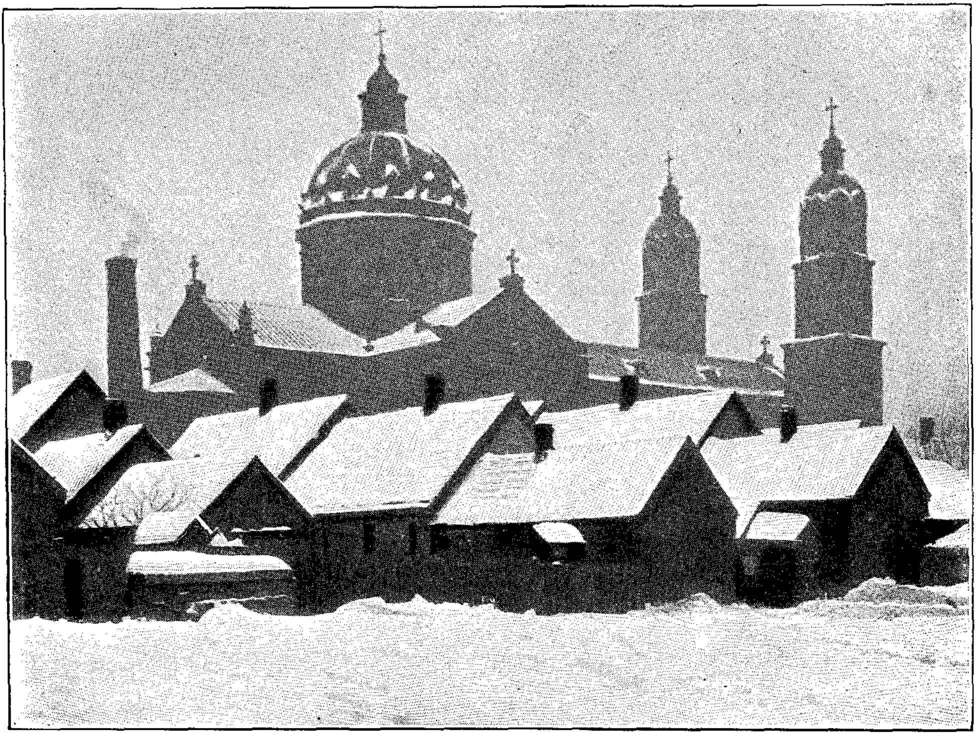
At the right of the picture one can see the shrines of patron saints.

the whole mining camp as interested spectators. The priest who marries them has no easy task, as he has to move both bride and groom bodily from one place before the altar to the other and fairly squeeze the responses out of them. The ceremony over, the wedding dinner is served, and never in all the Carpathian mountains was there such feasting as there is in the Alleghanies. "Polak" steak, cabbage with raisins, beets, slices of bacon, links of sausages, sweet potatoes, and, "last but not least," the great American dish, conqueror of all foreign tastes—apple pie. It is a glorious sight to see them eat, their faces buried in these unheard-of luxuries. Beer flows as freely as did milk and honey in the promised land, and again the little band plays, this time a new tune, and the bridegroom sings a new song.

> "Beer oh! beer oh! beautiful beer,
> And who then will drink of it
> When I am down in the pit?
> Beer oh! beer oh! who'll drink it then?"

While he is singing about the future and the crowd dances to this melancholy tune, the present takes care of itself, as barrel after barrel is emptied, until the pyramids of Egypt have small rivals in those built entirely of empty beer-barrels in the Pennsylvania mining town. Many of the drinkers fall asleep as soundly as Rameses ever did after he was embalmed, while others are making ready for the end of the feast—the fight, for "no fight, no feast" is the proverb. Somebody calls a Slovak a Polak, or vice versa; some young man casts glances at some young maiden otherwise engaged—and the fight is on. I have never discovered just the reason for the fight, and one might as well search for the cause of a cyclone or for the eruption of Mont Pelée, but the results are nearly the same: furniture, heads, and glasses all in the same condition—broken; everybody on the ground like twisted forest trees, while one hears between long black curses the peaceful snores of the unconscious drunk. The next day and the next the programme is repeated, and this is the Slovak's only diversion, unless it be a saint's day, when history repeats itself and he once more practices his two vices, drinking and fighting. Sexually he is virtuous, and no scandal taints these mining camps, where one woman cooks for fifteen or twenty men, who respect her as the wife of one man, while she respects her own virtue and would fight if necessary to remain loyal to her husband. There is much coarse, indelicate talk and much crudeness, but among no other foreigners is there such virtue.

The Pole who emigrates to this country comes from nearly the same region as the Slovak, and lives very much the same life, although in many things he is his superior. He has greater self-assertion, is not so submissive to the Church, chafes



A FINE POLISH CHURCH IN BUFFALO

It stands out in marked contrast to the dwelling-houses of the Polish laboring people.

much under restraint, has more of a literature in America, and calls himself an infidel as soon as he begins to think. In Chicago over 100,000 Poles live near the stockyards, engaged in menial tasks, yet not a few of them have gained positions of trust and influence. Politically they, too, are herded, and vote as Poles and not as Americans. I became acquainted with a saloon-keeper on Ashland Avenue in Chicago, who conducts a dance-hall, shoe-store, lumber-yard, and real estate office in connection with his saloon, and who is said to control five thousand Polish votes. I tell his story in nearly his own words. "I worked in the stockyards until I said to myself, You big fool, go in the saloon business, and make money big; so I went to the beer-brewer and told him, and he gave me a corner, and put a mortgage on it. One barrel of whisky and one barrel of beer I had, and I sold all kinds of drinks out of them. I told the boys to come in and dance on Saturday night, and they came; one day a big policeman came into my saloon and say, 'Sam, have you got a license?' and I said, 'None of your business,' and he wanted to shut me up, so I went to the alderman, and he shut him up, and he come round no more."

In this dance-hall there is a fight every Saturday night, and a Polish fight is less harmless than that of the Slovak. This is the low-water mark of the Poles in Chicago, but these Poles are not altogether fair examples, for there are fine representatives of that race in this country, men and women of culture, but they are rare and far removed from this class, which needs them and which could be influenced by them. In Detroit an American Protestant layman has thrown himself into the work of uplifting this mass of 40,000 Poles socially and spiritually, and the small measure of success which he has met so far is due only to the fact that small means are at his command. America has a Slav problem, but not a Slav peril, unless no leaven is introduced into this mass, which is in greater need of it and more prepared for it than we think.

The Day's Work

By Charles P. Cleaves

The sun's gold path has crossed the sky;
Beneath the orchard's glowing haze
A lone bee takes his last flight home;
The day has passed as other days.

The ship swings to the waiting dock,
A boy climbs to the tapering mast;
From factories grim beneath the hill
Gaunt streams of workers straggle past.

The orchard's fruit has riper grown,
The bee has stored the clover's sweet;
The boy's heart beats with manlier tone,
The weaver's web is more complete.

What I have done none can undo,
Though slowly wrought with trace of pain—
By hand or heart, by speech or thought,
By irksome toil that seemed in vain.

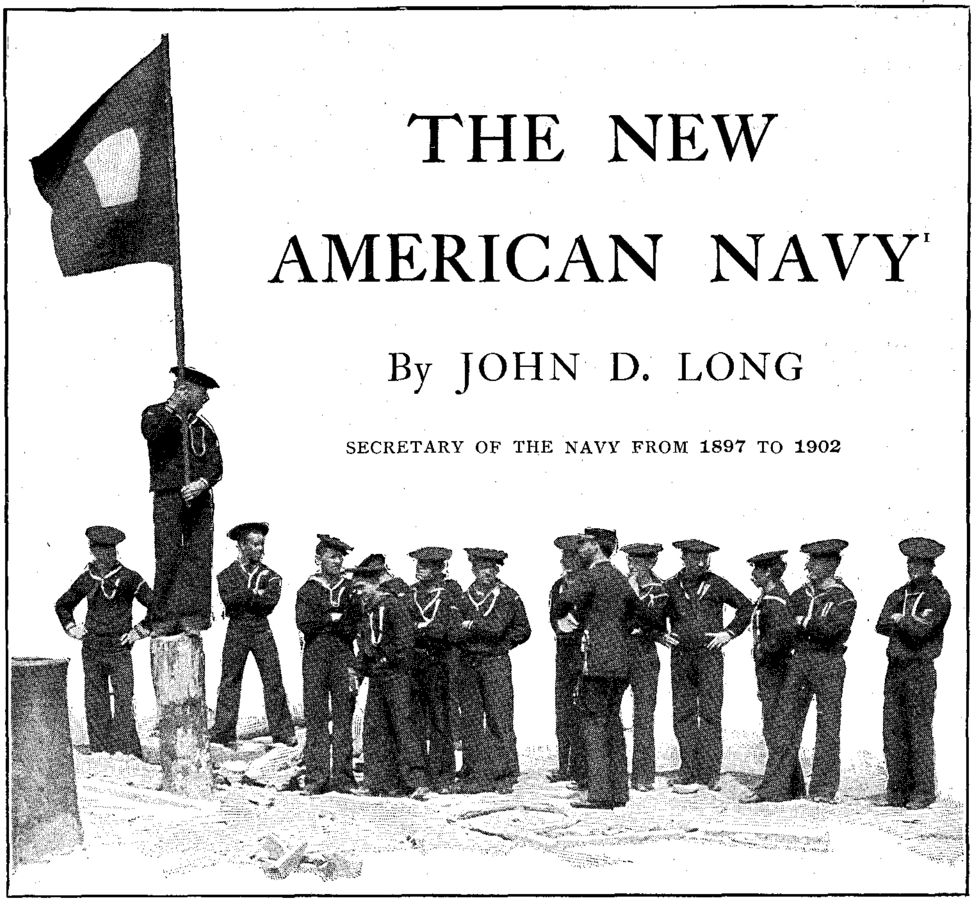
As I have learned, so now I am—
The hand more skilled, the soul more free;
The truer thought, the kindlier heart—
So God and man have fashioned me.

The fresh breeze draws through chanting trees,
The twilight's music steals about;
The peace of God falls as the dew.
I sit and watch the stars come out.

THE NEW AMERICAN NAVY[1]

By JOHN D. LONG

SECRETARY OF THE NAVY FROM 1897 TO 1902



WIGWAG DRILL BY THE SIGNAL CORPS

PREPARING FOR THE WAR WITH SPAIN

CUBA projected a sinister shadow across the foreign relations of the United States at the time when William McKinley was inaugurated President, March 4, 1897. Rebellion had raged in the island for years. The sound of the crack of its rifles and the swish of its machetes reached across the sea and grew more and more audible in the ears of the great Republic which for more than a century has been the ideal of freedom to all oppressed people.

Throughout the United States were manifested deep sympathy for the insurgents and a general wish for their success in their struggle. This feeling was intensified by the inhumane and barbarous methods of warfare employed by Spain to crush the revolt, and by the injury to American citizens and their industrial and commercial interests attendant upon the destructive operations of both insurgents and Spaniards. Responding to the loudly expressed demand of the people for some action on our part, President Cleveland, on April 4, 1896, tendered to Spain his good offices for the pacification of the island. The national pride of the Castilians in the integrity of their possessions rejected the offer. The note of the United States, however, had hardly reached the Spanish Government before our House of Representatives, answering the National insistence, concurred, by an almost unanimous vote, in a Senate resolution recognizing the belligerency of the Republic of

---

[1] Copyright, 1902, by the Outlook Company. All rights reserved.

This is the fifth of a series of twelve papers to appear in the Magazine Numbers of The Outlook. Other papers will be: The Battle of Manila Bay, The Blockade of Cuba, Bottling up Cervera's Fleet, The Battle of Santiago, Valiant Deeds in the War with Spain; Samoa, the Philippines, and China; Recent Naval Lessons.

Cuba. As they lacked the attributes of belligerents, President Cleveland declined to grant the insurgents recognition of belligerency. When President McKinley entered the White House, he found the Nation enthusiastic in the cause of Free Cuba, and the Congress feverishly seeking a means to further it.

With that infinite tact and diplomacy characteristic of President McKinley, he immediately addressed himself to the task of holding the people and their representatives in check, and at the same time accomplishing by negotiation the restoration of peace in disturbed Cuba, under conditions that would satisfy the just aspirations of the fighting patriots. He initiated his foreign policy with a declaration of amity toward all nations, which perhaps contributed to cause Spain to listen more considerately to the proposals submitted by John Sherman, as Secretary of State. The inaugural address of the President contained this significant statement:

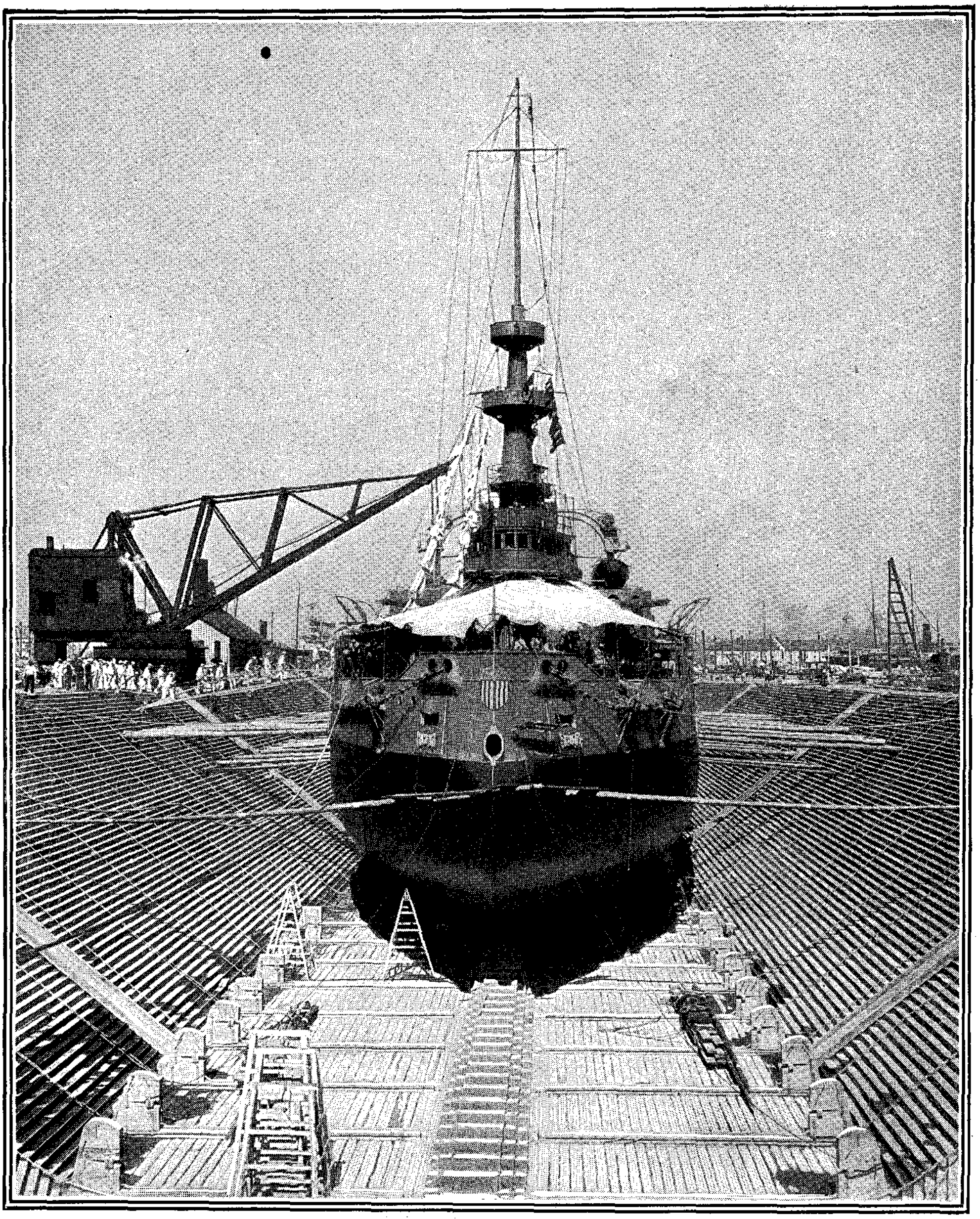
"War should never be entered upon until every agency of peace has failed; peace is preferable to war in almost every contingency."

Judicious as were these words, they yet failed to restrain the Senate, and that body, in the extra session called to enact the Tariff Bill, passed a joint resolution in behalf of Cuban independence. The Republican House, less headstrong than the Senate, stood by the President, and, in spite of public clamor, refused to take action which at once would have precipitated war and which certainly would have gravely embarrassed the diplomatic correspondence then pending.

Looking back over the negotiations conducted with Spain, one cannot but remark the high plane upon which they were placed; how the nobility and prescience of McKinley made humanity and civilization the cardinal principles of his policy—protection of American interests secondary thereto. In dealing with the Cuban question he let no selfish desire for territorial aggrandizement taint the treatment he gave it. Spain was sovereign in Cuba; her rights as sovereign must be respected. The obligation which we, as a friendly nation, owed to her, no less than the necessity of preventing the reproach that we were assisting the insurrection, led President Cleveland to establish an extensive marine patrol of our Atlantic and Gulf coasts. The same reasons actuated President McKinley in continuing it. Filibustering expeditions reached Cuba, it is true, but, annoyed as Spain was, she found herself unable to substantiate the claim that the United States failed to observe that "due diligence" which international law requires of a neutral.

The revolution, known as the Ten Years' War, which began in Cuba in 1868, was brought to a close in 1878 only by the exhaustion of Spain and her rebellious subjects. When President McKinley and his Cabinet began the study of the Cuban question, the conclusion was quickly reached that a policy of exhaustion had been adopted alike by each party to the later conflict, the one to vindicate its sovereignty, the other to achieve independence. Spain had sought to crush the rebellion in its incipiency by quartering two hundred and fifty thousand men on the island. The effort was futile. Acquainted with the soil, acclimated and hardy, the Cuban volunteer demonstrated that he was a match for the soldier of the Peninsula. The sword proving ineffectual to suppress the insurrection, Spain resorted to the blunter weapon of starvation. The rural folk were compelled to abandon their homes. Males too weak or too old to have joined the insurgents were herded with women in camps of concentration where lack of food and unsanitary surroundings begot frightful mortality. A conservative estimate of the result of this method of conducting war has been put at half a million deaths. The country, rid of its residents, was laid waste by the torch. Determination to make the war expensive to Spain caused the insurgents to vie with her soldiers in the work of devastation. The island, upon which nature lavishes her richest bounty, was transformed into a smoldering desert in which want and misery stalked. Years of work and of American capital and industry had been necessary to lift Cuba from the enfeebled condition caused by the drain of the Ten Years' War; the revolution of 1895 was forcing it back to the unhappy state of 1878.

The unfortunate situation of the Cuban



PHOTOGRAPH BY ENRIQUE MULLER

THE OREGON IN DRY-DOCK

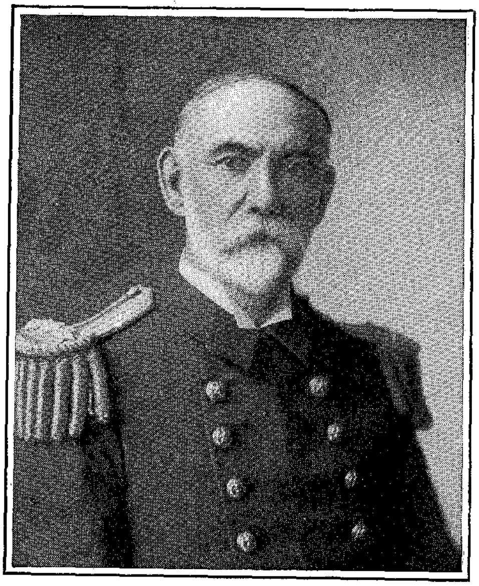
Preparing for her long cruise.

people and of American interests and investments in the island provoked the President to action. In the name of humanity and civilization, an earnest protest was offered against the inhuman tactics enforced, and demand was made that the war be conducted in accord with the military code of civilized nations. Small concessions were made to the just expressions of our horror, but the policy of concentration was only completely abandoned under the spur of our indignation. The right to care for its own is an inherent right of every nation. President McKinley obtained from Congress an appropriation for the relief of American citizens in Cuba brought to destitution and sickness by the devastation policy pursued in the island. This money, judiciously expended, succored many who were starving. The good it wrought was an indication of the greater good which could be accomplished by affording relief to the victims of the reconcentration camps. On December 24, 1897, the eve of the birth of the Master who taught the blessed lesson of charity, President McKinley appealed to the American people to give of their plenty to the suffering Cubans. The response was generous. His own personal contribution, of which few knew, was far beyond his means to give. Distribution of the money and supplies collected caused immediate alleviation of distress, and thousands were saved from death. The President's action was humanitarian in conception and execution, as it was also specially characteristic of his own generous nature, but it was also internationally significant, for it marked the beginning of American intervention in Cuba.

Temporary amelioration of the condition of the Cuban sufferers was the immediate object of the Presidential appeal for contributions for their sustenance. Eradication of the evils in the political system of Cuba, which made such a condition possible, was the only remedy which could prevent its return. Moreover, the United States owed it to itself and to its people to insist upon the termination of a situation which was productive of disaster to American capital, industry, and commerce, which caused constant irritation and disturbance of domestic, social, and business affairs, and which menaced the health of the Nation through the danger of the introduction of infectious diseases from the reconcentration camps of the island. These obligations were far more pressing upon the President than, and in fact superseded, the obligation to respect the sovereignty of Spain. The first step in their observance was intrusted to General Stewart L. Woodford, of New York, who was appointed Minister to Spain. On September 18, 1897, General Woodford tendered to the Madrid Government, on behalf of the President, the most kindly offices of the United States. This offer was couched in language decidedly more emphatic than that employed by Secretary Olney seventeen months before. "I cannot disguise the gravity of the situation," General Woodford said, "nor conceal the conviction of the President that, should his present effort be fruitless, his duty to his countrymen will necessitate an early decision as to the course of action which the time and the transcendent emergency may demand." This was practically the text of the instruction given to General Woodford before his departure for his post, and carefully considered by the President and his Cabinet during the hot summer days of the preceding July.

Spain suffered a Cabinet crisis eleven days after the presentation of the American note, and a new Ministry was formed, with the Liberal Señor Sagasta as its President. Sagasta appreciated the power of the United States and the temper of our people. The note of General Woodford, our able Minister to Spain, was answered by the announcement that an autonomist government would be established in the island. The innovation was one that to the President and his Cabinet indicated a hopeful change of policy on the part of the Spanish Crown. But though autonomy was established in Cuba within limited areas and with evidence of good faith on the part of Spain, it promptly developed its insufficiency to restore peace to the belligerent island. Those loyal to Spain derided it; the insurgents contemptuously refused to accept it.

Americans must review these negotiations with a feeling of satisfaction, for they clearly show that every opportunity and ample time were given to Spain to meet the demands of our President, and to effect a settlement honorable and right to herself and her rebellious subjects. During the consideration of the notes exchanged, I was often struck by the concern manifested by President McKinley and his advisers of the Cabinet to be considerate of the susceptibilities of the Spanish people, and at the same time to attain the one object in view—the permanent pacification of Cuba. It was of vital importance that the Navy Department should be advised of every development in the negotiations, as the maintenance of the naval anti-filibustering patrol was in its charge, the protection of American life and property in foreign lands was the first duty of our men-of-war, and there was, finally, the

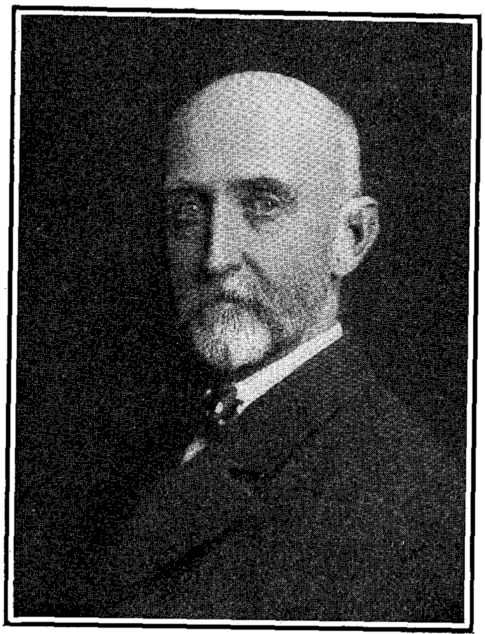


REAR-ADMIRAL MONTGOMERY SICARD
Of the Naval War Board.

REAR-ADMIRAL A. S. CROWINSHIELD
Of the Naval War Board.

probability that war—especially involving the navy—might be the ultimate result.

His conscientious view of the situation had deterred President Cleveland from sending a man-of-war to Cuban waters, though consular officers had not failed to call attention to the advisability of such action. American citizens had been arbitrarily thrown into jail, and one, Dr. Ricardo Ruiz, died in prison under circumstances which indicated that he had been foully murdered. Energetic representations made by the State Department during the Cleveland and the first few months of the McKinley administration resulted in the release of all Americans confined in Cuban prisons. Nevertheless, General Fitzhugh Lee, our Consul-General in Havana during both administrations, found his representations in behalf of American property and commercial interests hampered by the absence of a naval force, and the known determination of the prior administration not to order a warship to Cuban waters. In the first meetings of President McKinley's Cabinet consideration was given to the suggestion to despatch a man-of-war to Havana. But because it was desirable not to arouse the suspicion that the United States was applying pressure to Spain to compel acceptance of the President's proposals for the termination of the insurrection, it was decided to defer such action. Time, however, only accentuated the gravity of the Cuban situation, and there were indications that Havana might become the scene of disturbances anti-American in character. Such demonstrations, especially if directed against the American Consulate, could only have had conse-



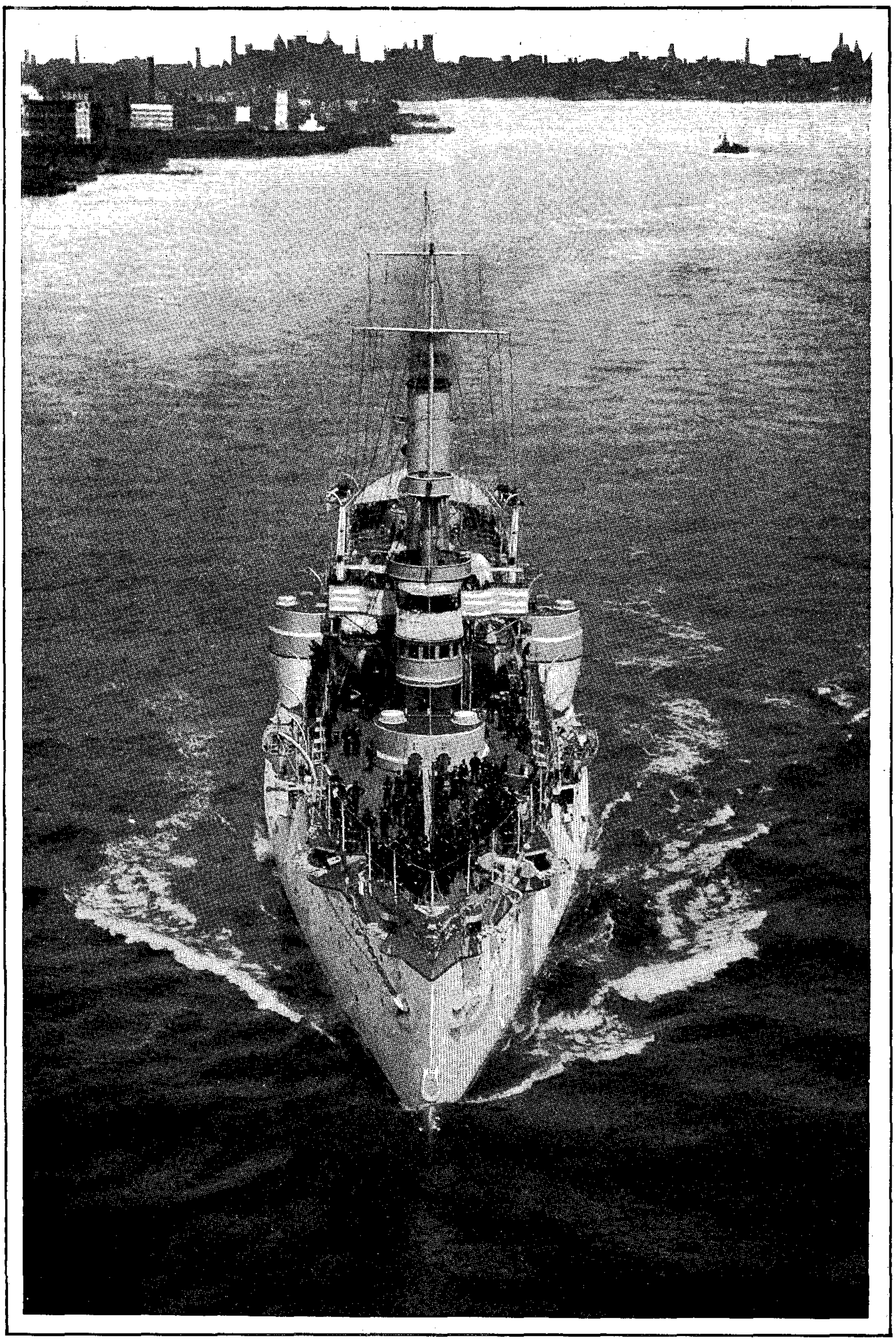
CAPTAIN ALFRED T. MAHAN
Of the Naval War Board.

quences disastrous to the peace of the two nations. As a measure of precaution, therefore, President McKinley, in October of 1897, decided that a war-ship ought to be stationed within a short distance of the Cuban capital. Instructions were accordingly given to the second-class battle-ship Maine to proceed to Port Royal, South Carolina. Early in December she was ordered to Key West, with instructions to open communication with General Lee, proceed to Havana at such time as, on notice from him, conditions in that city should warrant, and to grant an asylum to American citizens should they appear to be in danger. The wisdom of this action was proven by disturbances which occurred in Havana on January 12, 1898, as a result of the hostility of the Spanish royalists there to the plan of an autonomic government. General Lee cabled to the State Department that uncertainty existed whether the Spanish Captain-General could control the situation, and advised that ships be prepared to move promptly. Obviously, there was but one thing to do. Through Minister Woodford and General Lee the Spanish authorities had been advised of the purpose of the United States to have its war-ships resume friendly visits to Cuban ports. Carrying out this decision, the Maine went to Havana, and the cruiser Montgomery to Santiago de Cuba and Matanzas. Spain affected to see an ulterior motive in this action, and declared that the presence of American war-ships would obstruct autonomy and cause disorder, but responded to the announcement of the purpose to despatch war vessels to Cuban waters by declaring her appreciation of the proposed visits, and stating that she would return the courtesy by sending Spanish ships to the principal ports of the United States.

Several reasons were responsible for the selecting of the Maine for service at Havana. She was a second-class battle-ship, really an armored cruiser, sufficiently powerful to impress the Spanish troops and loyalists, and at the same time capable of making a good defense in case of an attack by shore batteries and their supporting ships in the harbor. She was under an officer in whom the Department had confidence—Captain Charles D. Sigsbee, who had been ordered to command her in April, 1897. A few months before the Maine was sent to Key West, Captain Sigsbee had shown good judgment in avoiding in the East River, New York, a collision with an excursion steamer loaded with women and children. Captain Sigsbee's conduct in Havana demonstrated that the Department had justly estimated his character. He was as punctilious as the Spaniards in official courtesies. He diplomatically refrained from involving himself in Cuban politics. At the same time, he served as the eyes and ears of the Navy Department, and transmitted to it all the information he could collect concerning political and military conditions in the island.

When the Maine was ordered to Havana, it was not intended that she should remain for a long time. In the judgment of the medical officers of the Department, sanitary reasons forbade a protracted stay. Political necessity demanded, however, that the advantage gained by the despatch of a vessel should not be lost by her immediate withdrawal. General Lee expressed the opinion that conditions required the presence of a war-ship; that the retirement of the Maine and neglect to order another ship in her place would aggravate them, and that to counteract the Spanish estimate of our navy a first-class battle-ship should be sent in case the Maine were relieved, and with it a torpedo-boat to preserve communication with the Commander-in-Chief of the North Atlantic Squadron. General Lee's views prevailed. The Maine remained in Havana Harbor, and the torpedo-boat Cushing conveyed despatches to and from her to the Commander-in-Chief at Key West.

While representatives of the United States, diplomatic, consular, and naval, were according to Spain the courtesy due to a friendly nation, the Envoy of the Spanish Government in Washington, Enrique Dupuy de Lome, committed an unfortunate breach of etiquette and propriety. In a letter to a friend in Havana the Minister referred to the President in coarse and abusive terms. The letter, brought to light, was submitted to the State Department. The usefulness of its author ceased at once. His recall was demanded, but before the demand was presented he anticipated it by tendering



THE BROOKLYN—ONE OF THE FLYING SQUADRON

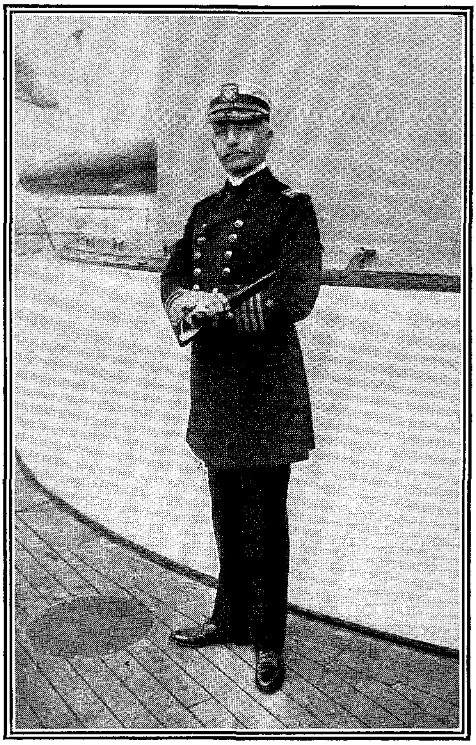
Photographed from the Brooklyn Bridge by Enrique Muller. Copyright, 1901, by Enrique Muller.

his resignation. Desire to preserve its agent from humiliation prompted immediate acceptance of the resignation, but the Spanish Government subsequently expressed regret and disclaimed the views expressed in the objectionable missive. Nevertheless, unjustifiable criticism of our President by the representative of Spain and the revelation he had made of Spanish insincerity aroused indignation and distrust, and added further irritation to a situation already brimful of dangerous possibilities.

The widening rift in the relations between the United States and Spain seemed to have no effect upon the treatment of the Maine by the Spanish authorities. Captain Sigsbee reported an evident inclination on the part of Spanish officials to limit their relations with him to those prescribed by official etiquette, but he experienced no discourtesy, and the Maine's arrival and stay produced no appreciable excitement. A few days later the vessel was made fast to the buoy designated by the captain of the port, from which she never moved. Captain Sigsbee, to show his good relations with the island, attended a bull-fight with some of his officers, but while returning from the exhibition a small printed sheet vehemently protesting against the visit of the Maine was placed in his hand. The following is a paragraph: "And, finally, these Yankee pigs, who meddle with our affairs, humiliate us in the last degree, and, for a still greater taunt, order to us a man-of-war of their rotten squadron, after insulting us in their newspapers with articles sent from our own home."

As circulars containing unexecuted threats against the life of General Lee had been frequently received by that officer, no attention was paid by Captain Sigsbee to the paper delivered to him; nor was it possible of belief that Spain, with many noble traditions, could descend to the depth of authorizing the destruction of the ship of another nation, with which she was still at peace, lying peacefully within one of her harbors. Captain Sigsbee had naturally taken precautions for the care and safety of his command, without making his action offensively obvious to the Spanish authorities, but his procedure related entirely to internal administration and could not extend to external surveillance. Spain's international duty required her to protect the Maine from outside injury. The same duty imposed upon the United States the preservation from harm of the Spanish cruiser, the Vizcaya, during her visit to New York. Though the Vizcaya lay in New York Harbor immediately after the destruction of the Maine, she rested in perfect security, guarded—unnecessarily—by tugs and launches, and she sailed undamaged to ultimate destruction in battle on the south shore of Cuba.

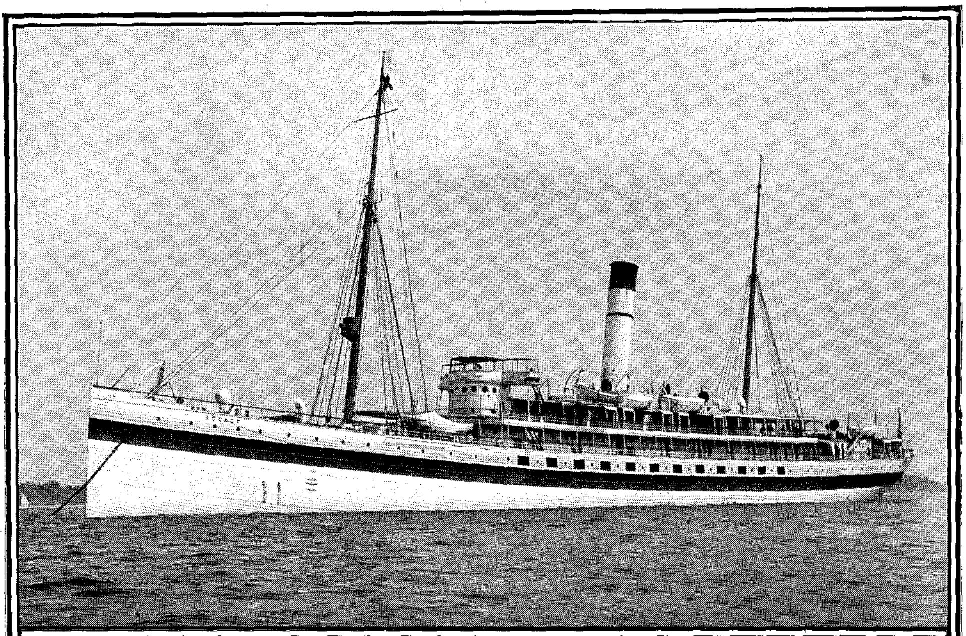
The Maine was blown up at forty minutes past nine in the evening of February 15, 1898. Two officers and two hundred and sixty-four enlisted men lost their lives in this catastrophe. I was awakened about two o'clock on the morning of February 16, by a despatch from Captain Sigsbee—shall I ever forget it, or the gentle hand that brought it?—briefly announcing the appalling disaster. It was a supreme moment, and that telegram was a spark that fired an explo-



COPYRIGHT BY ENRIQUE MULLER

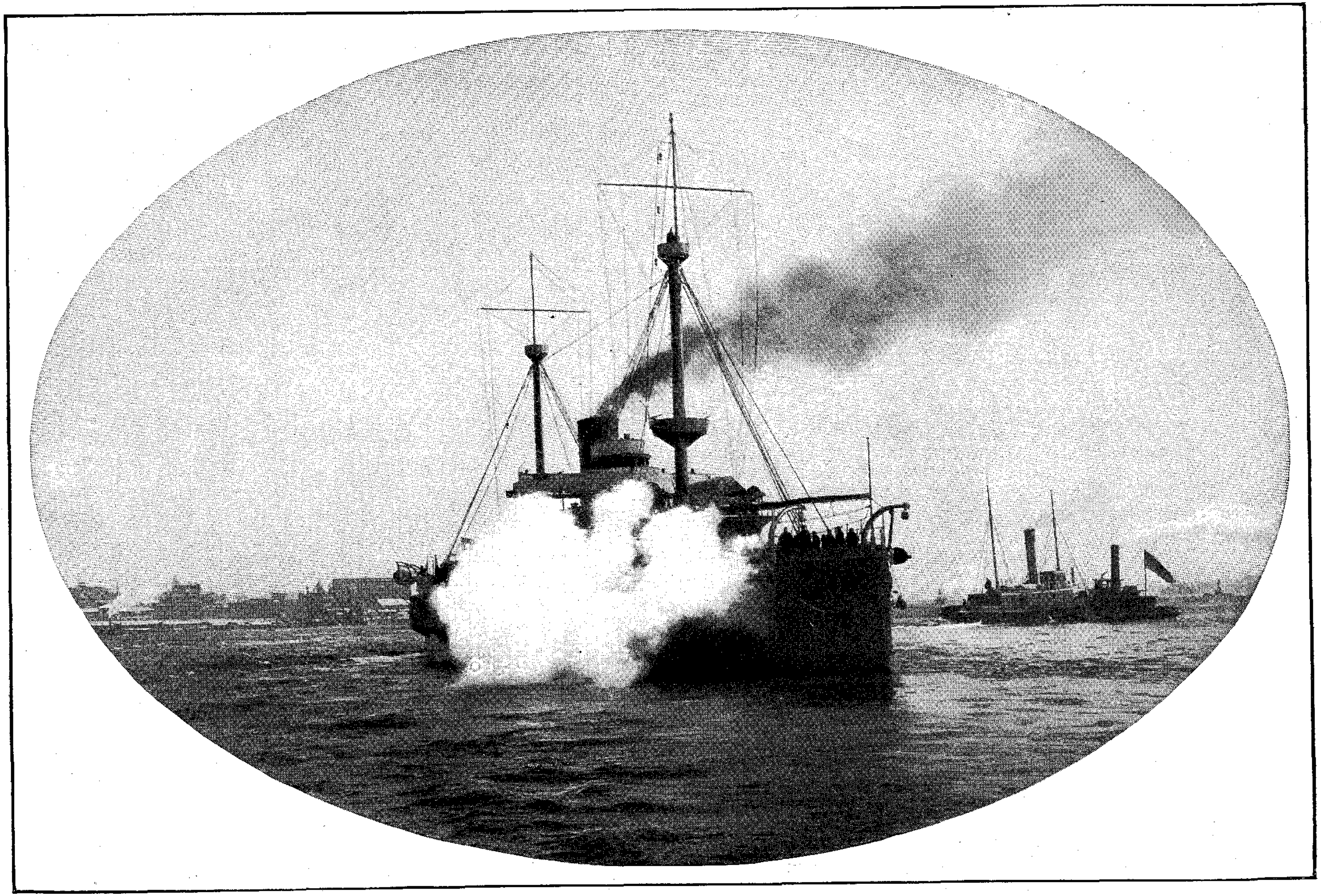
CAPTAIN W. H. BROWNSON

Who went abroad to purchase ships for the war. He is now Superintendent at Annapolis.



THE HOSPITAL SHIP SOLACE
Copyright, 1902, by A. Loeffler.

sion of popular feeling throughout the country far more pregnant of death and destruction than the explosion of the Maine. The bright representatives of the press were at my door, and the news was swift upon the telegraphic wires. Commander Francis W. Dickins, Acting Chief of the Bureau of Navigation, was at once sent for and directed to notify the President. It was manifest that the loss of the Maine would inevitably lead to war, even if it were shown that Spain was innocent of her destruction. Time was necessary, however, to enable completion of our preparations for conflict. From every point of view hasty action was inadvisable. The President desired to give the civilized world no ground for criticising the American Republic. His policy had not changed from that declared eleven months before. He sought to preserve peace, but to be prepared for war in case it was forced upon him. In his despatch Captain Sigsbee had suggested that "public opinion should be suspended until further report." This advice from the commanding officer of the destroyed vessel was taken by the country to refer to the suspension of its opinion as to the responsibility of Spain for the act, and was followed in that spirit. With admirable poise, but with unrelenting determination to avenge an injury if it had been done them, the people, after the first outburst of horror and indignation, sternly and deliberately awaited the verdict of the Naval Court of Inquiry which had been ordered to make a full and thorough investigation. Appreciating the grave consequences apt to ensue from its decision, the personnel of the Court was selected with the utmost care. Captain William T. Sampson, commanding the battle-ship Iowa, was named as President; Captain French E. Chadwick, commanding, and Lieutenant-Commander W. E. Potter, executive officer of the New York, were appointed members, and Lieutenant-Commander Adolph Marix was ordered as Judge Advocate. These officers had high professional standing, and the President and his Cabinet believed that their findings would be accepted. Captain Sampson had served as Chief of the Bureau of Ordnance and as head of the torpedo station at Newport. He was, therefore, well qualified to determine the question whether an internal or external explosive agent had destroyed the Maine. Prior to assuming command of the New York, Captain Chadwick had occupied the office of Chief of the Bureau of Equipment.



COPYRIGHT, 1898, BY ENRIQUE MULLER

THE TEXAS, IN WAR PAINT, STARTING FOR THE WAR

He was an expert in all matters relating to coal and electricity. Lieutenant-Commander Potter was an officer of technical experience and calm judgment. Lieutenant-Commander Marix had been executive officer of the Maine, and was familiar with the details of her structure and organization.

Conscious of the awful responsibility placed upon her by the destruction in her harbor of a friendly man-of-war, particularly one flying the flag of the United States, Spain at once gave assurance of sincere sympathy for the American Nation. The Queen Regent, whose attitude seems always to have been considerate, personally expressed profound horror and regret. The Spanish Government conveyed its condolence through our Minister Woodford at Madrid, and its Chargé d'Affaires at Washington. Governor-General Blanco and the Ayuntamiento of Havana declared their grief. From every nation and from every quarter messages of sorrow were received. The world was shocked by the disaster, and was prepared to hold the authors of it, if they could be discovered, to strict accountability. Spain's situation was most delicate. Her honor and her position in the family of nations were jeopardized by the investigation which the United States had set on foot. She proposed that a joint inquiry be made. The adoption of this proposal was impracticable. Then Spanish officers thought to throw obstacles in the way of our independent inquiry. A sharp protest ended this procedure. The wreck of the Maine was closely inspected by wreckers and divers and United States naval officers. Their discoveries and the evidence of survivors of the Maine and of persons who witnessed the explosion were heard by the court. On March 21 Captain Sampson and his associates submitted their report to the Department. They found that the Maine had been destroyed by the explosion of a submarine mine, but responsibility for her destruction was not specifically placed upon any person or persons. Unable to obtain a joint investigation, Spain ordered an independent one, which ascribed the catastrophe to internal causes. Spain subsequently suggested that an international court be convened to inquire into the Maine's destruction. The United States accepted neither this suggestion nor the Spanish findings. Immediately upon the receipt of the report of the Sampson court, Spain was advised of its character, and informed that the President did not permit himself to doubt that her sense of justice would dictate a course of action suggested by honor and the friendly relations of the two Governments. However, the soon-following declaration of war terminated all negotiations in regard to the Maine. The mystery of her loss yet remains to be solved, but the facts will some day come to light, and it will probably be found that, so far as the Spanish Government itself was concerned, it was innocent of the design, though it is possible that some of its subordinates may have been responsible for the fact.

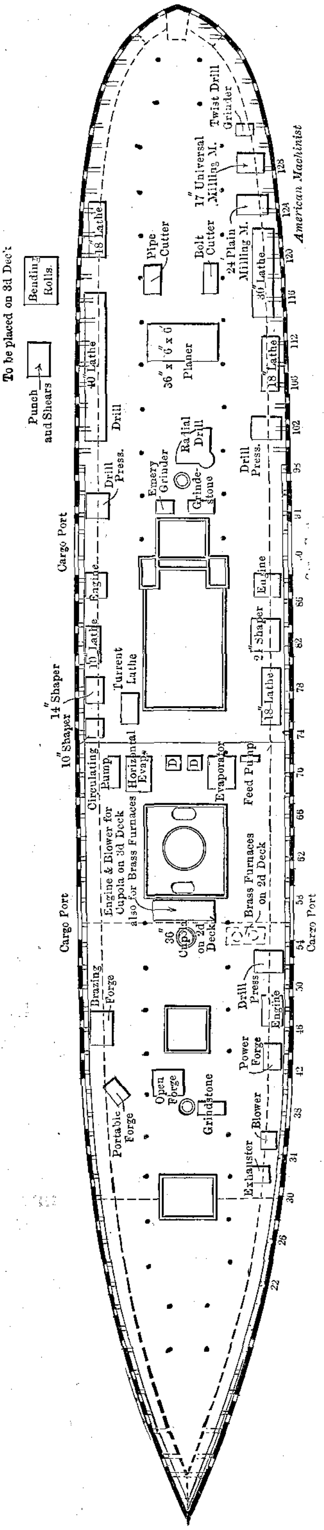
The destruction of the Maine severely aggravated the situation and precipitated the crisis. The certainty that war was inevitable in case Spain failed to grant generous concessions to the insurgents had caused the Navy Department for some time to maintain the navy on a semi-war footing. The measures to prepare the service for conflict were, as far as possible, of a nature not calculated to arouse public anxiety. Premature disclosure might have jeopardized pending negotiations; and it is a fact that unwise publications materially hampered the President and the Department in dealing with the Cuban question. As quietly, however, as it could be done, preparations were made. Ships under construction were completed and immediately commissioned; those undergoing repairs were finished and added to the fleet. The several squadrons, particularly those of the North Atlantic and Asiatic Stations, were required to engage in evolutions and target practice, so that, when confronted with an enemy, they would be able to maneuver as a unit, and shoot with judgment, rapidity, and precision. Plans of operations against Spain were devised, and all information regarding the Spanish navy that could be obtained was collected and considered in its various relations to hypothetical war situations.

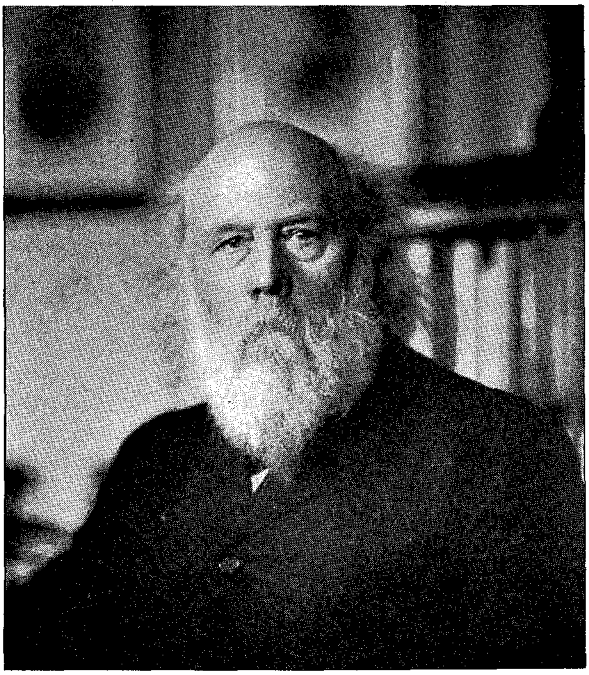
With the further development of the war cloud our preparations assumed larger proportions. Beginning with January 11, 1898, instructions were cabled to commanders-in-chief of the several squadrons to retain in service men whose terms of enlistment were about to expire. The North Atlantic Squadron and a torpedo-boat flotilla were sent to the Florida drill-grounds. The gunboat Helena, *en route* to the Asiatic Station, was stopped at the Azores, subsequently was ordered to join at Lisbon the San Francisco and Bancroft, which comprised the European Squadron, and, after the destruction of the Maine, was brought to Key West. The Bancroft accompanied the Helena to the United States, putting in at Norfolk for repairs, and again saluted her on the Cuban blockade. The South Atlantic Squadron, consisting of the Cincinnati and the Castine, which were at Montevideo, was advised on January 17 that affairs were much disturbed in Cuba, and that it should, without causing comment, proceed to Para, Brazil. Two days after the destruction of the Maine the Squadron was directed to proceed north from Para, and reached Key West on March 26. The Wilmington, which had been assigned to the South Atlantic Station, was caught by cable at Guadeloupe, and diverted to La Guayra. She dropped anchor in Key West Harbor on the same day on which the Cincinnati and Castine arrived. The Annapolis, which was cruising in the West Indies, was also ordered to Key West. In this way the Department mobilized within ninety miles of Cuba a fleet ready, upon declaration of hostilities, to establish a blockade of the principal ports of the island, and to do battle with the hostile squadron of the Peninsular Kingdom whenever it should appear.

In preparing for war the Department did not confine its attention to the Atlantic Ocean. Commodore George Dewey, Commander-in-Chief of the Asiatic Station, was directed to assemble his squadron, with the exception of the unseaworthy Monocacy, at Hongkong. The Olympia, his flagship, had been ordered home for repairs, but this order was revoked as the certainty of war loomed upon the horizon. The cruiser Baltimore was at Honolulu. The Mohican, at Mare Island, was ordered to convey to the Baltimore a large quantity of ammunition, and after its transfer the Baltimore started at once to join Commodore Dewey at Hongkong, who was thus amply supplied with ammunition from the beginning. The battle-ship Oregon, which was at Bremerton, Washington, early in March, was directed to proceed to San Francisco and receive ammunition. On March 12 she was ordered to prepare for a long cruise, and on March 19 she started on that voyage back around the Horn which will be famous so long as the American Nation takes pride in gallant deeds. The gunboat Marietta, which was at San José de Guatemala, was ordered to precede the Oregon and arrange for coal and otherwise facilitate the battle-ship's passage to Key West.

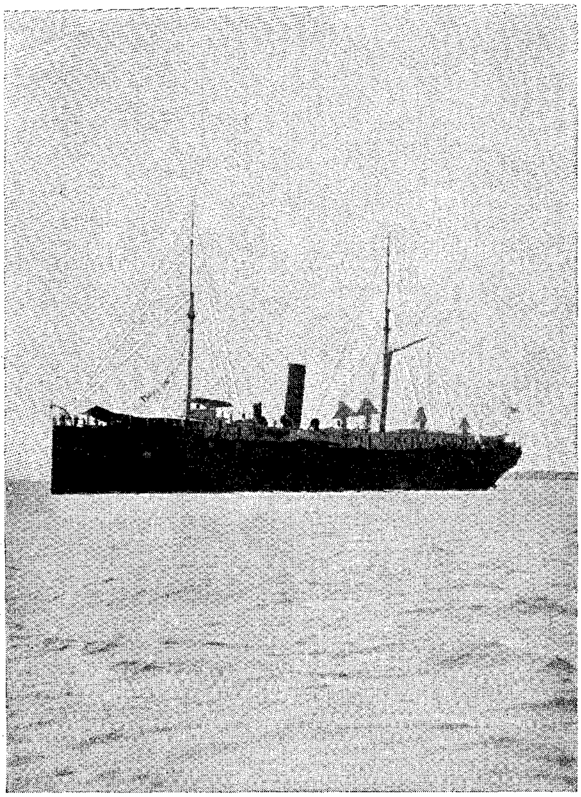
Thus were the regular squadrons mobilized and augmented. New squadrons were formed. The armored cruiser Brooklyn, which was on detached service in the Caribbean Sea when the Maine was destroyed, was ordered from La Guayra to Hampton Roads, where were assembled the battle-ship Massachusetts, the second-class battle-ship Texas, and the commerce-destroyers Minneapolis and Columbia. These ships comprised the Flying Squadron which was held in readiness to defend any point on the American coast or to assail a port of Peninsular Spain. Though the Department felt assured that the West Indies were to be the theater of military operations, some of the Atlantic coast cities and towns were nervously excited over the possibility of an attack by a Spanish man-of-war, and to allay alarm the Northern Patrol Squadron, under Commodore Howell, was organized on April 20. The San Francisco, brought home from Europe, was made the flagship of this squadron, and attached to the flag were the cruisers Prairie, Dixie, Yankee, and Yosemite. The Columbia and Minneapolis and two auxiliary cruisers, Badger and Southery, were also from time to time attached to this squadron. It turned out that there was never any real need for its organization, although it patrolled the coast northward, and it was finally disbanded and the vessels comprising it assigned to more pressing duty.

The Department early appreciated that the work cut out for the navy was too comprehensive for it to perform without considerable augmentation. The Secretary had exhausted his legal authority in enlisting men and apprentices over and above the quota allowed by law. There


To be placed on 3d Deck
Bending Rolls.
Punch and Shears
Twist Drill Grinder
17" Universal Milling M.
18" Lathe
Pipe Cutter
Bolt Cutter
24" Plain Milling M.
30" Lathe
36" x 6' x 6' Planer
40" Lathe
18" Lathe
Drill
Radial Drill
Drill Press.
Emery Grinder
Grindestone
Drill Press.
Cargo Port
Engine
Engine
10" Lathe
21" Shaper
Turrent Lathe
14" Shaper
10" Shaper
18" Lathe
Circulating Pump
Horizontal Evap.
D
D
Evaporator
Feed Pump
Engine & Blower for Cupola on 3d Deck also for Brass Furnaces
Brass Furnaces on 2d Deck
Cargo Port
36" Cupola on 2d Deck
Cargo Port
Brazing Forge
Drill Press
Engine
Power Forge
Open Forge
Grindstone
Portable Forge
Blower
Exhauster
128
124
120
116
112
106
102
95
91
90
86
82
78
74
70
66
62
58
54
50
46
42
38
31
30
26
22
American Machinist



PHOTOGRAPH BY H H. MOORE, NEW YORK



REAR-ADMIRAL MELVILLE, CHIEF OF STEAM ENGINEERING. DECK PLAN OF THE VULCAN. THE VULCAN OFF SANTIAGO IN SEPTEMBER, 1898 was not sufficient money, however, with which there was authority to buy material. On March 9 Congress, therefore, gave to Spain, and other powers not inclined to regard our policy with friendly eyes, a striking indication of our potential strength. It appropriated $50,000,000 of the ample funds in the Treasury "for the National defense." To show the confidence of the people, irrespective of political affiliation, in our President, this appropriation was placed at his disposal, to be spent in his discretion—which discretion he extended to his Secretaries. The President made allotments to the Navy Department which, in the aggregate, amounted to $29,973,274.22, all of which, with the exception of $618,447.17, was expended by it. Congress subsequently appropriated $25,000,000 for an emergency fund to meet unforeseen contingencies, and $3,000,000 for the organization and enrollment of the United States Auxiliary force. There was thus given to the Navy Department, for use at its discretion in strengthening the navy, the sum of $57,973,274.22. Of this amount there was unexpended on November 15, 1898, $25,056,131.21—practically the whole emergency fund, and more, which unexpended balance, of course, remained in the Treasury.

PHOTOGRAPH BY TAYLOR'S, WASHINGTON, D. C.

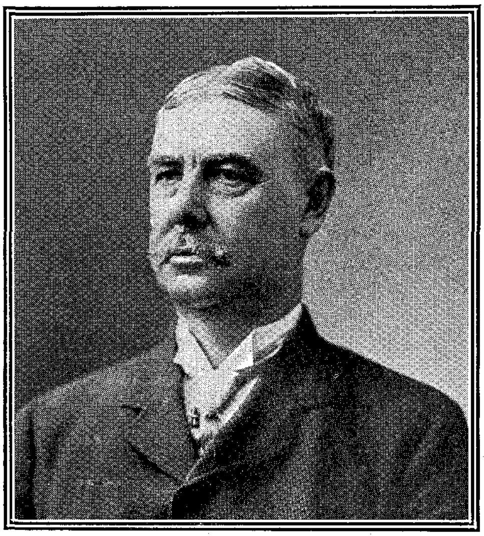
CAPTAIN JOHN R. BARTLETT

In command of the Coast Signal Stations during the War with Spain

All the money disbursed by the Department was honestly spent and every purchase made in good faith. Even before Congress granted its appropriation for National defense, the Department had given consideration to the question of purchasing foreign men-of-war. The navy list of every nation likely to sell had been scanned. Reports were obtained in regard to war-ships nearing completion in the private ship-yards of Europe. Captain W. H. Brownson had been sent abroad to pursue inquiry and initiate negotiations of purchase. Mr. Charles R. Flint, of New York City, through his large maritime connections, was also helpful. The Department swarmed with agents of foreign firms anxious to make sales to the United States. Sight was not lost of the fact that Spain, too, was anxious to buy, and that it was more desirable that we should pay a high price for a ship than to permit it to be incorporated into her service. As a result of the efforts of the Department and its agents, two protected cruisers, the Amazonas and the Abreu, both building at Elswick, England, for Brazil, also the gunboat Diogenes, belonging to the Thames Iron Works, of England, and two torpedo-boats, were purchased. These vessels were christened the Albany, New Orleans, Topeka, Manly, and Somers, respectively. The New Orleans and Topeka did excellent service in Cuban waters during the war; the Manly was attached to the auxiliary defense squadron at New York; the Albany was retained in England, not having been completed, until after the war.

The difficulty experienced in adding war-ships to the navy when the country was on the eve of hostilities shows the danger and folly of a policy which trusts to the last moment to make preparation. It was soon evident that foreign governments were not disposed to bring upon themselves the protest of Spain by selling vessels to the United States for hostile use against her, and practically the only Power which served us in this respect was Brazil, which authorized the sale to us of the Amazonas and the Abreu. In view of the inability largely to add regular men-of-war to the service, it became necessary to improvise war vessels. Ninety-seven merchantmen were purchased and transformed into auxiliary cruisers, gunboats, and colliers; five vessels, one the City of Pekin, of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, and four, the St. Paul, St. Louis, New York, and the Paris, were chartered from the International Navigation Company; one iceboat and two yachts were loaned to the Department, and fifteen revenue cutters, four lighthouse tenders, and two United States Fish Commission vessels were transferred from their especial departments to the Navy Department.

The labor of purchasing vessels devolved to a great extent upon the office of the Assistant Secretary, and Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Allen were successively efficient in procuring ships for the service and rendering other valuable service. Several hundred vessels were offered to the Department, some at extortionate prices. Little political pressure was applied to force purchases. Some American owners displayed far more greed than patriotism. Before competition became active, no doubt the Department paid a higher price than the vessels would have brought at private sale, and in one or two instances there was rank extortion; but when the honor and safety of the Nation were at stake, and time was of the greatest importance, and the ships must be had at any cost, the Department could not go without them. Once, however, the need of the Department became generally known, competition between shipowners grew energetic, with the result that vessels were obtained at reasonable prices. All the ships acquired were first inspected by a Board of which Captain Frederick Rodgers was President, or by special Boards, and the officers comprising them performed their duties with fidelity and care; thus the Department was assured by expert report that every vessel purchased was properly built and fitted to perform its part in the war.



PHOTOGRAPH BY PURDY

REAR-ADMIRAL FREDERICK RODGERS

President of the Board for inspecting newly acquired war-ships.

The acquisition of vessels was followed by their transformation into war-ships. The Bureau of Construction and Repair utilized its plants at navy-yards and private ship-yards to convert them. The ships were strengthened to withstand the shock of discharge of guns, woodwork was ripped out, batteries installed, and they were docked and painted and supplied with proper equipments. The construction plants at five navy-yards, which in January, 1898, employed 2,200 men, furnished work for a maximum of more than six thousand during the war. Few of the vessels purchased had evaporators or distillers, appliances essential to continued service afloat, or proper outfits of engineering stores and tools, and many of them required overhauling in their steam departments. The Bureau of Steam Engineering performed this work satisfactorily and expeditiously. One novelty which Rear-Admiral Melville, the Engineer-in-Chief, introduced into the service was a floating steam engineering plant—a floating blacksmith shop. The vessel so transformed I named the Vulcan, and her service in North Atlantic waters showed the great value of having such an establishment attached to a fleet engaged in offensive operations. The Bureau of Equipment supplied auxiliary vessels with complete outfits of rigging, canvas, galleys and cooking utensils, boat supplies, anchors, chains, electric supplies, searchlights, binnacles, compasses, sextants, chronometers, charts and other instruments and appliances of navigation, sails, awnings, hammocks, bags, and many other articles. The best indication of the quantity of supplies it distributed is furnished by the report made on the distribution charts. Up to the time when the preparations for war began, the quarterly output of navigation charts in time of peace rarely exceeded 6,600. During the Spanish emergency the division of Chart Construction issued 43,910 copies of charts. The Bureau of Equipment was also charged with the purchase and transportation of coal. Rear-Admiral Bradford, Chief of this Bureau, urged before the declaration of war that coaling stations be established in the vicinity of the passages about the Antilles, but this proved impossible, and the most that could be done was to direct the Bureau of Yards and Docks to construct a station at Dry Tortugas, off the coast of Florida, capable of storing twenty thousand tons of coal, which, however, was not ready for service during the war. Unable to establish coaling depots, the Department turned to the coasting fleet, which submitted numerous tenders for the transportation of coal. When war was declared, but one firm was prepared to carry out its proposal. Coal was vital to the success of naval operations, and steamers were purchased and transformed into colliers and armed and manned with naval crews. As indicating the state of efficiency reached in the matter of coal transportation, attention may be called to the fact that on one occasion 40,000 tons of coal were afloat at Hampton Roads ready to be sent at an hour's notice to any point the Department should designate. The Department was also confronted with the problem of supplying the ships with fresh water for steaming purposes, and it was necessary to purchase water, though the effort was made to meet this want by converting large steamers into a distillery and a tank-ship.

Five hundred and seventy-six guns were placed on board the vessels transformed into men-of-war. Besides purchasing many of these guns, the Bureau of Ordnance contracted for and obtained prompt deliveries of large quantities of powder, projectiles of all kinds and calibers, fixed ammunition, and small arms. To meet the demands of the service, the contractors were compelled to increase their plants and work without intermission. As a result of several years of study and development, a purely smokeless powder, combining the qualities of safety, permanency, and strength, was developed just prior to the war with Spain. The Department, however, was prevented by lack of time from supplying all its vessels with a complete outfit of this. In view of the fact that one gun using brown powder would with its smoke have nullified the effect of another of the same ship employing smokeless powder, it was necessary to move cautiously. Consequently, a few vessels only were given this kind of ammunition. The magazines of every ship in the service are now filled up with it. Just prior to and during the war the Bureau of Ordnance prepared gun-cotton mines and mining outfit; and launching-tubes for seventy-five torpedo-boats were manufactured.

The Bureau of Medicine and Surgery made preparations for putting the medical departments of the ships in condition to care for the sick and wounded; and the hospital ship Solace, under the Surgeon-General, was a creation of mercy to those who suffered from war and disease.

The Bureau of Supplies and Accounts, which was charged with making all purchases, upon requisition from the different bureaus, provided provisions and clothing for the men, and provided them with clockwork promptness. The lack of docking facilities, a matter of especial concern, was partially met for small ships by the purchase of the floating dock.

In other words, the splendid preparedness of our navy was due, as should never be forgotten, to the Chiefs of Bureaus who were charged with that duty in their respective lines. The attempt to persuade the country to a full appreciation of their desert in this respect is almost hopeless, for it rarely takes the pains to go beyond the picturesque and conspicuous, or to recognize in the plodding official at his desk and out of his uniform the man who does the work of preparation but shares none of the glory of achievement.

What has been stated shows that the Navy Department was buzzing with the activity of a beehive during the few weeks between the destruction of the Maine and the beginning of war with Spain, and this activity continued throughout hostilities. There has not yet been mentioned, however, one of the most important of the many important problems which confronted the Department. That was the increase of the commissioned and enlisted forces of the navy to man the greatly augmented material. Additions to the crews of regular men-of-war were required. Crews were needed for the auxiliary navy and for vessels assigned to the defense of the coast other than those of the seagoing patrol squadron. These ships included monitors of the Civil War, converted ferry-boats, yachts, and tugs. Signalmen were required to operate the coast signal stations. At the time of the destruction of the Maine, the commissioned seagoing force of the navy consisted of 1,232 officers, distributed among the line, engineer, medical, and pay corps, and including chaplains and cadets undergoing their final cruise before graduation. The authorized enlisted force, including men and apprentices, numbered 11,750. Eight hundred and fifty-six volunteer or acting officers were appointed during the war, and there were innumerable applications of bright, eager, experienced men from all over the country, making the total commissioned force 2,088, while the enlisted strength reached a maximum of 24,123. More than 4,200 men were mustered in from naval militia organizations; while these had not had extended training and experience, their intelligence and education enabled them to make themselves quickly proficient in their duties, especially when associated with trained men-of-warsmen. The St. Paul, St. Louis, Harvard, and Yale were taken into the service on the condition that their crews should accompany them. They were placed under command of naval officers. The suggestion was made that some of the older organizations of the naval militia were competent to handle men-of-war, and Massachusetts, New York, Maryland, and Michigan were called upon to furnish officers and men for the Prairie, Yankee, Dixie, and Yosemite. The promptness with which the call was answered is shown by the fact that the New York naval brigade reported, uniformed, armed, equipped, and ready for duty, within six hours, and the Massachusetts naval brigade in similar condition within eight hours. Many of the organizations of other States, such as Illinois and others, were willing, with very creditable generosity, to be distributed among such ships as needed men.

In January, 1898, organizations of naval militia existed in fifteen States, and aggregated 200 commissioned officers and 3,703 petty officers and enlisted men. The Department had directed on March 23, 1898, the preparation of a scheme for a "mosquito flotilla" for coast defense, and while only a part of the plan had been worked out when war was declared, it was rapidly carried into execution, and the auxiliary naval force finally comprised 41 vessels, distributed so as to protect important strategic points of the United States, and to patrol the mine fields laid in the harbors.

As a part of the system of defense, a board was formed in October, 1897, to consider the establishment of coast signal stations. In accordance with the plan as outlined, arrangements for establishing the stations were made early in the following April. They were so complete that within two days after Rear-Admiral Sampson's fleet began the blockade of Cuba, competent quartermasters, signalmen, and telegraph operators from the naval militia organizations started for the points where the stations were to be located, and many had reported their arrival. In two weeks all the stations, save two located at points on the Florida coast difficult of access, had been equipped. These stations during the war, under the direction of Captain John R. Bartlett, then on the retired list, co-operated with those of the life-saving service, the United States Lighthouse service and Weather Bureau system. By this means the Department had constantly on the lookout for suspicious craft a force of 2,526 men, most of whom were experienced and provided with exceptional facilities for reporting the appearance of vessels. Though no hostile man-of-war was sighted, yet the value of this system was demonstrated by the promptness with which the battle-ship Oregon was reported off Jupiter Inlet, Florida, after her famous run around the Horn.

Any description of the work of the Department in preparation for war would be lacking in an essential particular if reference were not made to the Naval War Board. Lacking professional experience, and the navy being without a general staff, it was necessary that the Secretary should have the assistance of such a board.

Assistant Secretary Roosevelt, Captain A. S. Crowninshield, Chief of the Bureau of Navigation, Captain A. S. Barker, and Commander Richardson Clover, Chief of Naval Intelligence, were asked to act in that capacity just before the war began; but it was only a few days before Mr. Roosevelt, Captain Barker, and Commander Clover were called to more active service. Thereupon Rear-Admiral Montgomery Sicard and Captain A. T. Mahan, of the retired list, were appointed members with Captain Crowninshield of the Naval War Board, and they acted as such during the war. It was eminently fitted to co-ordinate the work of the Department and the fleet, and to keep a general surveillance over the larger strategical and technical questions which could not be dealt with by the commanders-in-chief of the several squadrons. Rear-Admiral Sicard had commanded the North Atlantic Squadron, and, just prior to the war, had been compelled, because of ill health, to relinquish this position. He was thus well acquainted with the peculiarities and capabilities of each ship and the state of efficiency of the entire squadron. Captain Crowninshield, as Chief of the Bureau of Navigation, was informed as to the distribution and movements of vessels. Captain Mahan is known as an authority on naval strategy. To my mind the Board possessed high intelligence and excellent judgment, and its service was invaluable in connection with the successful conduct of the war.

On April 15, four weeks before the arrival of Admiral Cervera's fleet in the Caribbean Sea, the New Navy was in condition to wage war against Spain. The ships of the service, which for months before had been scattered in all directions, engaged in works of peace, had been mobilized and fully manned and equipped and reinforced by auxiliary vessels. Two strong fleets were stationed at points which enabled both the assault of Spain's vital positions and the defense of our own shores. Four days before this state of preparedness was reached, President McKinley remitted the entire Cuban question to Congress. Released from the rein of the Executive, the two houses hastened to act. By the resolution approved April 20, 1898, Spanish withdrawal from Cuba was demanded. On the following day President McKinley issued instructions for the hostile movement of the fleets which, as a member of Congress and as President, he had aided in bringing into existence. And my telegram went to Acting Admiral Sampson to blockade Cuba at once.

All this time the enthusiasm of the country was at fever-heat. The Department was thronged with Congressmen and citizens at large. Tenders of service came in from every quarter; contributions of money were made, notably that of $100,000 by Miss Helen M. Gould. Private yachts were tendered. Officers whose duty held them on shore or at the Department pleaded with me with tears in their eyes for transfer on shipboard and to the scene of action afloat. The Cabinet was in frequent session, and daily and nightly those of its members who were more closely related to the war were in consultation with President McKinley at the White House. And all the while, with the tremendous responsibilities that lay on him, he kept his poise in serenity of spirit and clearness of judgment.

John Burns[1]

By Justin McCarthy

Author of "A History of Our Own Times," "The Story of Gladstone's Life," etc.

JOHN BURNS stands out a distinct and peculiar figure in the House of Commons. He is the foremost representative of that working class which is becoming so great a power in the organization of English political and industrial life. "Be not like dumb driven cattle," says Longfellow in his often-quoted lines—"Be a hero in the strife." The British workingmen were until very lately little better than dumb driven cattle; in our days and under such leadership as that of John Burns they have proved themselves capable of bearing heroic part in the struggle for great reforms. I can remember the time when the House of Commons had not in it any member actually belonging to the working classes. At that time the working classes had no means of obtaining Parliamentary representation, for it may be said with almost literal exactness that no workingman had a vote, or the means of obtaining a vote, at a Parliamentary election. The conditions of the franchise were too limited in the constituencies to enable men who worked for small daily or weekly wages to become voters at elections. In order to become a voter a man must occupy a house rated at a certain yearly amount, and he must have occupied it for a specified and considerable space of time, and there were very few indeed of the working class who could hope to obtain such legal qualifications. In more recent days the great reformers of these islands have succeeded in establishing what may be fairly described as manhood suffrage in these countries, and have also secured a lodger franchise, have established the secret ballot as the process of voting, and by these and other reforms have put the workingman on a level with his fellow-citizens as a voter at Parliamentary elections. My own recollection goes back to the time when the law in Great Britain and Ireland insisted on what was called a "property qualification" as an indispensable condition to a candidate's obtaining a seat in the House of Commons. I have known scores of instances in which clever and popular candidates got over this difficulty by prevailing on some wealthy relative or friend to settle legally on them an amount of landed property necessary to qualify them for a seat in the House. It was perfectly well known to every one that this settlement was purely a formal arrangement, and that the new and nominal possessor of the property was no more its real owner than the child who is allowed for a moment to hold his father's watch in his hand becomes thereby the legal owner of the valuable timepiece. In our days no property qualification of any kind is needed either for a vote at a Parliamentary election or for a seat in the House of Commons, and therefore the workingmen form an important proportion of the voters at Parliamentary elections and are enabled in certain constituencies to choose men of their own class to represent them in the House of Commons.

I have thought it well to make the short explanation of the changes which have taken place in the condition of the British workingmen during recent years as a prelude to what I have to say concerning that foremost of British workingmen, John Burns. It is only fair to say that the workingmen of these countries have made judicious and praiseworthy use of the new political powers confided to them, and have almost invariably sent into Parliament as the representatives of their class men of undoubted ability and of the highest character, men who win the respect of all parties in the House of Commons. Of these men John Burns is the most conspicuous. He has never, indeed, held a place in an administration, as two, I think, of his order have already done; but then John Burns is a man of resolutely independent character, and it would not be easy thus far to form even a Liberal Government which should be quite up to the level of his views on many questions of domestic and foreign policy.

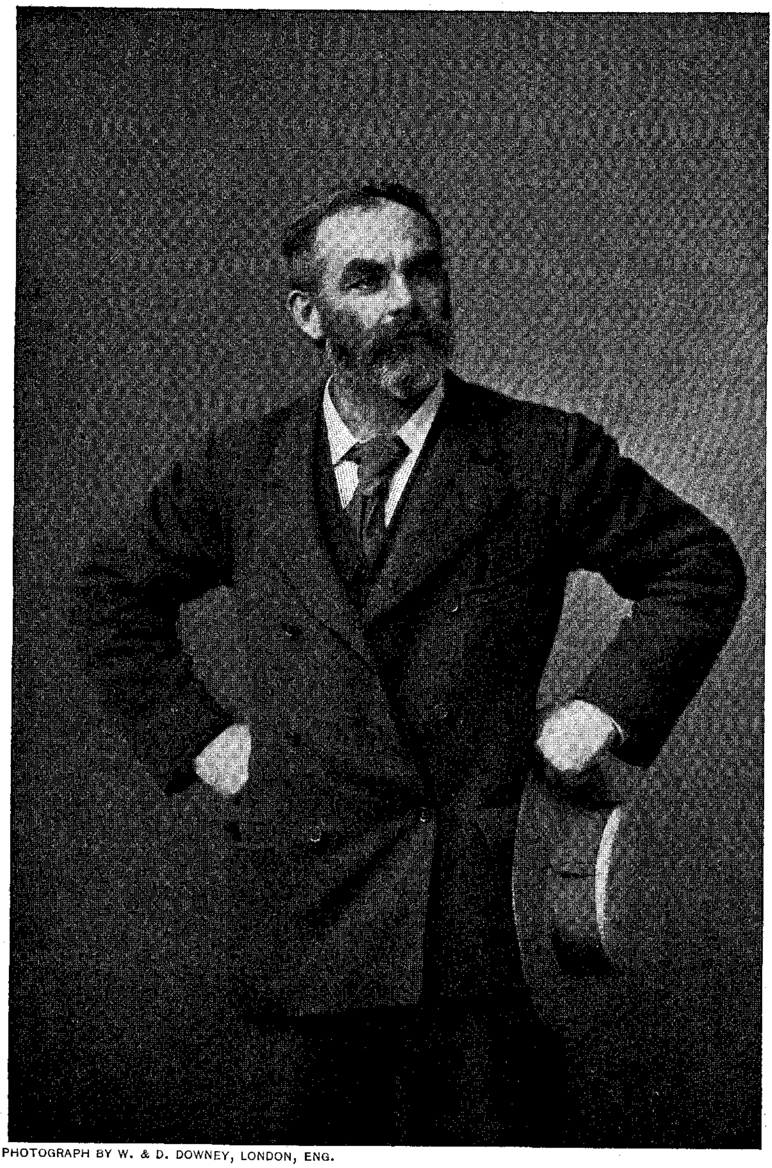
---

[1] This forms the tenth of a series of articles on living British statesmen. Subjects already treated are: Mr. Balfour, Lord Salisbury, Mr. John Morley, Mr. Henry Labouchere, Lord Aberdeen, Sir William Harcourt, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, and John E. Redmond.

John Burns would hardly be taken personally as a typical representative of the British workingman. He is short in stature, very dark in complexion and in the color of his hair, and a stranger seeing him for the first time might take him for an Italian or a Spaniard. His physical strength is something enormous, and I have seen him perform with the greatest apparent ease some feats of athletic vigor which might have seemed to demand the proportions of a giant. His whole frame is made up of bone and muscle, and although he is broadly and stoutly built, he does not appear to have any superfluous flesh. If I had to make my way through a furious opposing crowd, I do not know of any leader whom I should be more glad to follow than John Burns. But although Burns is physically made for a fighting man, there is nothing pugnacious or aggressive in his temperament. He is by nature kind, conciliatory, and generous, tolerant of other men's opinions, and only anxious to advance his own by fair argument and manly appeals to men's sense of humanity and justice. I have seen him carry a great big elderly man who had fainted at a public meeting and take him to a quiet spot with all the ease and tenderness of a mother carrying her child. But if I were an overbearing giant who was trying his strength upon a weaker mortal, I should take good care not to make the experiment while John Burns was anywhere within reach. He is an adept at all sorts of athletic sports and games, skating, rowing, foot-racing, boxing, cricket, and I know not what else. He is essentially a man of the working class, and has, I believe, some Scottish blood in his veins, but he is a Londoner by birth, and passed all his early life in a London district. He was born to poverty, and received such education as he had to begin with at a humble school in the Battersea region on the south side of London.

Now, I should think that a boy born in humble life who had in him any gift of imagination and any faculty for self-improvement could hardly have begun life in a better place than Battersea. The Battersea region lies south of the Thames, and is a strange combination of modern squalidness and picturesque historical associations and memorials. The homes of the working class poor stand under the very shadow of that famous church in Old Battersea where Bolingbroke, the high-born, one of the most eloquent orators known to English Parliamentary life and one of the most brilliant writers who adorn English literature, lies buried, and where strangers from all parts of the world go to gaze upon his tombstone. Everywhere throughout the little town or village one comes upon places associated with the memory of Bolingbroke and of other men famous in history. Cross the bridge that spans the Thames and you are in the Chelsea region, which is suffused with historical and literary associations from far-off days to those recent times when Thomas Carlyle had his home in one of its quiet streets. To a boy with any turn for reading and any taste for history and literature, all that quarter of London on both sides of the Thames must have been filled with inspiration. John Burns had always a love of reading, and I can easily fancy that the memories of the place must have been a constant stimulant and inspiration to his honorable ambition for self-culture. His school days ended when he was hardly ten years old, and then he was set to earn a living, first in a candle-factory and afterwards in the works of an engineer. Thus he toiled away until he had reached manhood's age, and all the time he was steadily devoting his spare hours or moments to the task of self-education. He read every book that came within his reach, and studied with especial interest the works of men who set themselves to the consideration of great social problems.

Burns naturally became very soon impressed with the conviction that all could not be quite right under a political and social system which made the workingman a mere piece of living mechanism and gave him no share whatever in the constitutional government of the country. At that time there was no system of national education in England, and the child of poor parents had to get his teaching through some charitable institution, or to go without any teaching whatever. So far as the education of the poorest classes was concerned, England was then far below Scotland, below Germany and Holland, and below the United States. As regards the political system, a man of the class to



PHOTOGRAPH BY W. & D. DOWNEY, LONDON, ENG.

JOHN BURNS

which John Burns was born had little chance indeed of obtaining the right to vote at a Parliamentary election, which was given only to men who had certain qualifications of income and of residence not often to be found among the working classes. The English system of national education is little more than thirty years old, and the extension of the voting power which makes it now practically a manhood suffrage is likewise of very modern date. It was natural that an intelligent and thoughtful boy like John Burns should, under such conditions, become filled with socialistic doctrines and should find himself growing into a mood of impatience and hostility towards the rule of aristocrats, landlords, and capitalists, by which the country was then dominated. Soon after he had reached his twenty-first year he obtained employment as a foreman engineer on the Niger in Africa, and there he had his first experience of a climate and a life totally unlike anything that could be found in the Battersea regions. I have often heard it said that during his employment in English steamers on the Niger he was known among his British companions as "Coffee-pot Burns," in jocular recognition of his devotion to total abstinence principles. He spent about a year in his African occupation, and during that time he had managed to save up a considerable amount of his pay, a saving which we may be sure was in great measure due to his practice of total abstinence from any drinks stronger than that which was properly contained in the coffee-pot. When he left Africa, he invested his savings in a manner which I cannot but regard as peculiarly characteristic of him, and which must have given to such a man a profitable return for his investment—he spent his savings, in fact, on a tour of several months throughout Europe. Thus he acquired an invaluable addition to his stock of practical observation and a fresh impulse to his studies of life and of books. He settled down in England as a working engineer, and he soon began to take a deep interest and an active share in every movement which had for its object the welfare of the classes who live by daily labor.

Obviously, there are many improvements in the condition of such men that could be brought about only by legislation, and John Burns therefore became a political agitator. His voice was heard from the platforms of great popular meetings held in and around London and in many other parts of the country, and he was one of the leaders of the great agitation which secured for the public the right of holding open-air meetings in Trafalgar Square. John Burns was meant by nature to be a popular orator. He has a physical frame which can stand any amount of exertion, and his voice, at once powerful and musical, can make itself heard to the farthest limit of the largest outdoor meeting in Hyde Park or Trafalgar Square. But he is in no sense whatever a mere declaimer. He argues every question out in a practical and reasonable way, and although he has some views on political and industrial subjects which many of his opponents would condemn as socialistic, there is nothing in him of the revolutionist or the anarchist. His object is to bring about by free and lawful public debate those reforms in the political and industrial systems which he regards as essential to the well-being of the whole community. The Conservative party in this country used to have for a long time one particular phrase which was understood to embody the heaviest accusation that could be brought against a public man. To say that this or that public speaker was endeavoring to "set class against class" was understood to mean his utter condemnation in the minds of all well-behaved citizens. We do not hear so much of this accusation in later days, partly because some of the very measures demanded by those setters of class against class have been adopted by Conservative Governments and carried into law by Conservative votes. But there was a period in the life of John Burns when he must have found himself denounced almost every day in speech or newspaper article as one whose main endeavor was to set class against class. John Burns does not seem to have troubled himself much about the accusation. Perhaps he reasoned within himself that if the endeavor to obtain for workingmen the right of voting at elections and the right to form themselves into trades-unions for the purpose of bettering their lives were the endeavor to set class against class, then there is nothing for it but to go on setting class against class until the beneficent result be obtained. So John Burns went on setting class against class, with the result that he became recognized all over the country as one of the most eloquent, capable, and judicious leaders whom the workingmen could show, and his unselfishness and integrity were never disparaged even by his most extreme political opponents.

A remarkable evidence was soon to be given of the solid reputation which he had won for himself in public life. A complete change was made by Parliamentary legislation in the whole system of London's municipal government. The vast metropolis which we call London was up to that time under the control for municipal affairs of the various parish boards and local vestries, each of them constructed on some representative system peculiarly its own, and none of them, it may be justly said, under any direct control from the great mass of the community. The greater part of the West End of London was under the management of a body known as the Metropolitan Board of

Works; the City of London was dominated by its own historic Corporation; each other district of the metropolis had its governing vestry or some such institution. Apart from all other objections to such a system, one of its obvious defects was that no common principle was recognized in the municipal arrangements of the metropolis; there were no common rules for their regulation of traffic, for the levying of rates, for the management of public institutions, and a Londoner who changed his residence from one part of the town to another, or even from one side of a street to another, might find himself suddenly brought under the control of a system of municipal regulations with which he was totally unfamiliar. Appeals were constantly made by enlightened Londoners for some uniform system of London government, but for a long time nothing was done in the way of reform. At last, however, it happened—luckily, in one sense, for the community—that the Metropolitan Board of Works, which ruled the West End districts, became the cause of much public scandal because of its mistakes and mismanagement, not to use any harsher terms, in the dealing with public contracts. The excitement caused by these discoveries made it impossible for the old system to be maintained any longer, and the result was the passing of an Act of Parliament which created an entirely new governing body for the metropolis. This new governing body was styled the London County Council, and it was to have control of the whole metropolis, with the exception of that comparatively small extent of municipal territory which we know as the City of London. The members of the new County Council were to be chosen, for the most part, as are the members of the House of Commons, by direct popular suffrage. Some of the foremost men in England became members of the new County Council. One of those was Lord Rosebery, another was Sir Thomas Farrer (who since became Lord Farrer), a third was Frederic Harrison, one of the most eminent writers and thinkers of his time, and another was John Burns, the working engineer. I mention this fact only to show how thoroughly John Burns must have established his reputation as a man well qualified to take a leading place in the municipal government of London. Since that time he has been elected again and again to the same position.

When the great dispute broke out in London between the dock-laborers and the ship-owners, John Burns took an active and untiring part in the endeavor to obtain fair terms for the workers, and by his moderation and judgment, as well as by his inexhaustible energy, he did inestimable service in the bringing about of a satisfactory settlement. The late Cardinal Manning took a conspicuous part in the effort to obtain good terms for the workingmen, and he was recognized on both sides of the dispute as a most acceptable mediator, and I remember that he expressed himself more than once in the highest terms as to the services rendered by John Burns during the whole of the crisis. Burns made one or two unsuccessful attempts to obtain a seat in the House of Commons—or perhaps, to put it more correctly, I should say that he consented, in obedience to the pressure of his friends and followers, to become a candidate for a seat. In 1892 he was elected to Parliament as the representative of that Battersea district where his life began, and he has held the seat ever since. In the House of Commons he has been a decided success. It is only right to say that the workingmen representatives, who now form a distinct and influential section in the House, have fully vindicated their right to hold places there, and have, with hardly any exception, done honor to the choice of their constituents. John Burns is among the foremost, if not the very foremost, of the working class representatives. He has won the good opinions of all parties and classes in the House of Commons. He has won especial merit which counts for much in the House—he never makes a speech unless when he has something to say which has a direct bearing on the debate in progress and which it is important that the House should hear. He is never a mere declaimer, and he never speaks for the sake of making a speech and having it reported in the newspapers. The House always knows that when John Burns rises he has some solid argument to offer, and that he will sit down as soon as he has said his say.

The first time I had the honor of becoming personally acquainted with John

Burns was in the House of Commons, shortly after his first election, and I was introduced to him by my friend Michael Davitt. I could not help feeling at the time that it was a remarkable event in one's life to be introduced to John Burns by Michael Davitt. Both these men were then honored members of the House of Commons, and both had for many years been regarded by most of what are called the ruling classes as disturbers of the established order of things and enemies of the British Constitution. Davitt had spent years in prison as a rebel, and Burns had been at least once imprisoned, though but for a short time, as a disturber of public order. Every one came to admit in the end that each man was thoroughly devoted to a cause which he believed rightful, and that the true and lasting prosperity of a State must depend largely on men who are thus willing to make any sacrifice for the maintenance of equal political rights in the community. I have had, since that time, many opportunities of meeting with Burns in public and private and exchanging ideas with him on all manner of subjects, and I can only say that the better I have known him the higher has been my opinion of his intelligence, his sincerity, and his capacity to do the State some service.

John Burns has made himself very useful in the committee work of the House of Commons. The House hands over the manipulation and arrangement of many of its measures on what I may call technical subjects—measures concerning trade and industry, shipping and railways, and other such affairs of business—to be discussed in detail and put into working shape by small committees chosen from among the members; and these measures, when they have passed through this process of examination, are brought up for full and final settlement in the House itself. It will be easily understood that there are many subjects of this order on which the practical experience and the varied observation of a man like Burns must count for much in the shaping of legislation. Burns has genial, unpretending manners, and although he was born with a fighting spirit, he is not one of those who make it their effort to cram their opinions down the throats of their opponents. Although his views are extreme on most of the questions in which he takes a deep interest, he is always willing to admit that there may be something to be said on the other side of the controversy; he is ever ready to give a full consideration to all the arguments of his fellow-members, and if any one in the committee can show him that he is mistaken on this or that point, he will yield to the force of argument, and has no hesitation about acknowledging a change in his views. Fervent as he is in his devotion to any of the great principles which have become a faith with him, there is nothing of the fanatic about him, and I do not think his enemies would ever have to fear persecution at his hands. There is no roughness in his manners, although he has certainly not been brought up to the ways of what is generally known as good society; and his smile is winning and sweet. He has probably a certain consciousness of mental strength, as he has of physical strength, which relieves him from any inclination towards self-assertion. I should find it as difficult to believe that John Burns countenanced a deed of oppression as I should find it to believe that he sought by obsequiousness the favor of the great.

John Burns was, it is almost needless to say, an opponent from the very beginning of the policy which led to the war against the South African Republics. When the general election came on, about midway in the course of the war, the war passion had come upon the country like an epidemic, and some of the most distinguished English representatives lost their seats in the House of Commons because they refused to sanction the Jingo policy. Many men who were rising rapidly into Parliamentary distinction were defeated at the elections by Imperialist candidates. Nor were the men thus shut out from Parliament for the time all members of the Liberal party. In some instances, although few indeed, there were men belonging to the Conservative, the Ministerial, side, who could not see the justice of the war policy and would not conceal their opinions, and who therefore had to forfeit their seats when some thorough-going Tory Imperialists presented themselves as rivals for the favor of the local voters. So great was the influence of the war passion that even among the constituencies where the workingmen were strong there were examples of an Imperialist victory over the true principles of liberty and democracy. But the Battersea constituents of John Burns remained faithful to their political creed and to him, and he was sent back in triumph to the House of Commons to carry on the fight for every good cause there. He took part in many debates during the continuance of the campaign, and he never made a speech on the subject of the war which was not listened to with interest even by those most opposed to his opinions. He has the gift of debate as well as the gift of declamation, and he knows his part in Parliamentary life far too well to substitute declamation for debate. The typical demagogue, as he is pictured by those who do not sympathize with democracy, would on such occasions have merely relieved his mind by repeated denunciations of that war in particular and of wars in general, and would soon have lost any hold on the attention of the House, which is, to do it justice, highly practical in its methods of discussion. John Burns spoke in each debate on the war when he had something to say which could practically and precisely bear on the subject then under immediate consideration—a question connected with the administration of the campaign, with the manner in which the War Office or the Colonial Office was conducting some particular part of its administrative task, with the immediate effects of this or that movement, and in this way he compelled attention and he challenged reply. I remember, for instance, that when the spokesmen of the Government were laying great stress on the severity and injustice of the Boer State's dealings with the native populations of South Africa, John Burns gave from his own experience and observation instances of the manner in which African populations had been dealt with by British authorities, and demanded whether such actions would not have justified the intervention of some European State if the conduct of the Boer Government, supposing it to be accurately described, was a justification for England's invasion of the Boer territory. Whenever he took part in the debate, he met his opponents on their own ground, and he challenged their policy in practical detail, instead of wasting his time in mere declamatory appeals to principles of liberty and justice which would have fallen flat upon the minds of those who held it as their creed that Imperial England was free to dictate her terms to all peoples of inferior strength and less highly developed civilization.

John Burns has fairly won for himself an honorable place in the history of our time. If he had done nothing else, he would have accomplished much by demonstrating in his own person the right of the workingman to have a seat in Parliament. One finds it hard now to understand how the English House of Commons could ever have been regarded as the representative ruling body of England, when it held no members who were authorized by position and by experience to speak for the working populations of the country. I mean no disparagement to the other representatives of the working classes when I say that I regard John Burns as the most distinguished and the most influential among them. Others of the same order have rendered valuable service, not merely to their own class, but to the State in general, since they came to hold seats in the House of Commons; some have even held administrative office in a Liberal Government, and have shown themselves well qualified for the duties. Not any one of them, so far as I can recollect, has ever shown himself the mere declaimer and demagogue whom so many Conservative observers and critics used to tell us we must expect to meet if the workingmen were enabled to send their spokesmen into the House of Commons.

I do not know whether John Burns has any ambition to hold a seat in some future Liberal Ministry, but I venture to think that if such should be his fortune, he will prove himself more useful than ever to the best interests of his country. He has never sought to obtain the favor and the support of his own order by flattering their weaknesses, by encouraging them in their errors, or by allowing them to believe that the right must always be on their side and the wrong on the side of their opponents. I fully believe that he has good and great work yet to do.

Books of the Week

This report of current literature is supplemented by fuller reviews of such books as in the judgment of the editors are of special importance to our readers. Any of these books will be sent by the publishers of The Outlook, postpaid, to any address on receipt of the published price, with postage added when the price is marked "net."

A B C of Stock Speculation (The). By S. A. Nelson. Published by S. A. Nelson, 16 Park Place, New York. 5×7 in. 232 pages.

We need hardly say that speculation is not an exact science, and that the man who knows least about it has in his ignorance a safeguard which he may well hesitate to throw away. Wall Street methods, terms, and ways of reasoning are here described clearly and evidently with thorough knowledge.

American Republic and Its Government (The). By James Albert Woodburn. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 5½×8¾ in. 410 pages. $2, net.

Back to the Woods: The Story of a Fall from Grace. By Hugh McHugh. Illustrated. The G. W. Dillingham Co., New York. 4×7 in. 116 pages.

By the Ramparts of Jezreel. By Arnold Davenport. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 388 pages. $1.50.

A long and grandiloquently written story based on the Scriptural story of Ahab.

Biblical and Literary Essays. By A. B. Davidson, D.D., LL.D., Litt.D. Edited by Professor J. A. Paterson, D.D. A. C. Armstrong & Son, New York. 5¼×8 in. 320 pages.

A few weeks since, the memorial volume containing a biographical sketch of Professor Davidson and some of his sermons was noticed in this column. The present volume is a fuller exhibition of his richly stored mind, at home in subjects as diverse as "Arabic Poetry" and "The Rationale of a Preacher." Deeply serious, Dr. Davidson can be sportive also at the expense of his American brethren in the work of the Revised Version, and sarcastic, too; *e.g.*, "In our day the number of sins has greatly diminished, and it is only particular classes that can fall into them. A clergyman may still be guilty of several; a trader, perhaps, of one; but an independent man of wealth or station cannot sin." Conservative enough he was, but would that all conservatives were as discriminating; *e.g.*, "The person who is not Christian is evil, but the nature which is not Christian may not be evil. It certainly is not perfect. But its products may be *good, because human.*" (The italics are ours.) The present exalted estimate of Biblical theology needs Dr. Davidson's judicious reminder that the principle of interpreting Scripture by Scripture must stop short of all forced reconciliations of opposing statements. Such antinomies he would state in their full strength and let them stand. "These opposite propositions in Scripture are usually akin to opposite principles in the human mind and in Providence, and our moral nature often demands their full statement. . . . Reflect," he adds, "that even in the economy of Providence no principles are carried to their full application, but there is an equipoise of forces." These essays are the work of a master.

Christian Science Cult (The). By J. J. Taylor, M.A., D.D. The American Baptist Publication Society, Philadelphia. 5×7¾ in. 40 pages.

Church and the Ministry in the Early Centuries (The): The Eighteenth Series of the Cunningham Lectures. By Thomas M. Lindsay, D.D. A. C. Armstrong & Son, New York. 5¾×9 in. 398 pages.

Reserved for later notice.

Coin of Edward VII. (A). By Fergus Hume. The G. W. Dillingham Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 284 pages.

Collegiate Church of Stratford-on-Avon and Other Buildings of Interest in the Town and Neighborhood. By Harold Baker. Illustrated. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 95 pages. 60c.

This volume is so fully described by its title that it is only necessary to add that the work is very competently done, the old church receiving very full treatment, as do also Guild Hall, Guild Chapel, the Grammar School, and other historical or interesting buildings in Stratford. The book contains nearly sixty illustrations from photographs admirably reproduced.

Correspondence of the Colonial Governors of Rhode Island, 1723–1775. Edited by Gertrude Selwyn Kimball. In 2 vols. Vol. I. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. 6×9 in. 434 pages. $5.

The official correspondence of these early Governors naturally relates chiefly to the external affairs of the colony. The work of the editor, particularly the historical essay with which the volume is introduced, is well done.

Der Talisman. By Ludwig Fulda. Edited by Edward Stockton Meyer, Ph.D. Henry Holt & Co., New York. 4½×6¾ in. 171 pages. 35c., net.

Dwellers in the Mist. By Norman Maclean. The Fleming H. Revell Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 284 pages. $1.25.

This is a collection of stories or character sketches relating to the people of the Hebrides—plain, homely, shrewd folk who still talk Gaelic and have many old ways of living and thinking. There is a good deal of "red-veined humanity" in these incidents of a minister's life among these people, and some episodes of dramatic force and passion. Mr. Maclean's work has individuality and reality.

Employment of Women in the Clothing Trade (The). By Mabel Hurd Willett, Ph.D. (Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law. Vol. XVI. Number 2.) The Columbus University Press, New York. 6×9½ in. 206 pages. $1.50.

French Commercial Correspondence. By Charles Glauser, Ph.D. Arranged and Adapted by W. Mansfield Poole, M.A. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 287 pages. $1, net.

Germany: The Welding of a World Power. By Wolf von Schierbrand. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. 6×9 in. 376 pages. $2.40, net.

An important book on present conditions. Reserved for later notice.

Harmony of the Gospels (A). In the Revised Version, with New Helps for Historical Study. By John A. Broadus, D.D., LL.D. Revised by Archibald Thomas Robertson. (New Seventh Edition, Revised and Enlarged.) A. C. Armstrong & Son, New York. 6×8 in. 289 pages.

Heart of John Wesley's Journal (The). Edited by Percy Livingston Parker. Illustrated. Fleming H. Revell Co., New York. 5½×8½ in. 512 pages. $1.50, net.

In the delightful and eloquent "appreciation" reprinted in this volume as an introductory comment upon the Journal of John Wesley, Augustine Birrell declares that between the beginning and the end "there lies the most amazing record of human exertion ever penned or endured." He then proceeds to liken it to contesting an election, as the phrase is in England, for forty years. Two days, chosen entirely at random, may be taken as an example of the unremitting effort his life involved: these days are an Easter day and the following Tuesday. His first audience on those days he held in spite of the opposition of priests, until they came and drove the people away; the second audience he held in the street in competition with a cock-fight, to which the people had been thronging; and the third audience he held in spite of a storm of hail, "the greater part of them," he adds, "refusing his request even to cover their heads," and none going away until he had concluded his discourse. The record of these two days, which are typical of all, gives a glimpse not only of Wesley's telling power over men, but also of the secret of that power. This lay in a faith that was both simple and direct. In Wesley's case, at least, the style is the man. The simplicity and directness of Wesley's style can bear comparison with the greatest models of directness and simplicity—such as Defoe, Bunyan, the English Bible. In this fact is evidence, not commonly recognized, that the power of Wesley was not in that meretricious emotionalism that is frequently associated with the conduct of a religious revival. Wesley's entire Journal has never been published. Wesley himself made some selection for publication. The present volume is a selection wisely made from that selection; and is published this year in view of the bicentenary of John Wesley's birth. There is a brief introduction by the late Hugh Price Hughes. The volume contains a number of interesting illustrations, and is well indexed.

Hebraisms in the Authorized Version of the Bible. By William Rosenau, Ph.D The Friedenwald Co., Baltimore. 5½×8¾ in. 283 pages.

This is an interesting and profitable book for students of our mother tongue. Specialists have observed the influence of the Bible on English speech. English-speaking people, whatever be now their case, have been in past time a "people of the book" only in less degree than Israelites; the Bible in their vernacular has been their most popular and familiar book. But many a Hebraism has thus passed into English, and, as Professor Moulton observes, the style of the Hebrew writers "has largely leavened the style of modern English." In the present work Dr. Rosenau, a pupil of Dr. Paul Haupt, exhibits this Hebrew element in the language of the English Bible; and it will seem surprisingly large to one not aware of it. Aside from the lexical and syntactical Hebraisms that are noted, those that will most attract the general reader are the proverbial Biblical passages in common use, the Biblical expressions in English literature, and the discussion of specimen expressions. A large part of the book is devoted to an alphabetical list of Hebraisms with their English equivalents, *e.g.*, "wise men who knew the times (Esther i. 13), *i.e.*, astrologers." Some of these have been modernized in the American Standard Edition of the Revised Version, *e.g.*, "sons of Belial" (1 Samuel ii. 12) is rendered "base men." Dr. Rosenau's interpretations are occasionally open to question, *e.g.*, "the living God (2 Kings xix. 4), *i.e.*, the invincible God." But his work is certainly a valuable adjunct to our apparatus for popular Bible study.

History of Pre-Clusian Botany in the Relation to Aster. By Edward Sanford Burgess. (Studies in the History and Variations of Asters. Part I.) Published by the Torrey Botanical Club, New York. 6×9 in. 447 pages.

Home Floriculture: A Practical Guide to the Treatment of Flowering and Other Ornamental Plants in the House and Garden. By Eben E. Rexford. Illustrated. The Orange Judd Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 300 pages.

This book and Mrs. Ely's "A Woman's Hardy Garden" (the full title of which will be found in its alphabetical place in this department) are both practical books, the first being written, as Mr. Rexford tells us in his introduction, for amateur floriculturists by an amateur floriculturist, for the purpose of providing a plain, practical, and easily understood handbook, based upon personal experience, which does not assume to be a short cut to complete knowledge, but to put the amateur in the way of dealing intelligently with plants, and on the path to as intimate and full acquaintance as he desires to make. Mrs. Ely's book is modestly described as dealing very briefly with a few shrubs, hardy perennials, biennials, and annuals of simple culture; but it is a book, by reason of its simple directness, its adequate knowledge, its very pleasant style, and its beautiful illustration, to tempt the reader, if he has not already yielded to the temptation, to make a venture in the difficult world of gardening. Mrs. Ely strikes the note of her whole treatment of the subject when she says that the love of flowers and of all things green and growing is with many people a kind of primal instinct which expresses itself under the narrowest possible conditions and with the fewest materials when it cannot find wider range To those who are possessed with this instinct this book comes with a singular touch of sympathy. It is the work of a born lover of flowers, and any one who has to deal with flowers knows that love has as much to do with their prosperity as knowledge, and that those who love flowers have a singular and at times almost magical way of making them thrive. It is the diffusion throughout Mrs. Ely's book of this quality which takes it out of the class of simple books of direction and makes it personal and individual. She presents a great deal of information about proper times for planting, the regulation by numbers with reference to space and effectiveness, the protection of plants from snow, frost, and insects; in short, she writes about the garden as if she knew it by heart from its earliest to its latest stages; and she writes for the people who have not scientific knowledge, but who love flowers, and have therefore the first qualification for dealing with them successfully.

Laboratory Manual of Physics (A). By Henry C. Cheston, Philip R. Dean, and Charles E. Timmerman. The American Book Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 128 pages. 50c.

La Religion dans la société aux États-Unis. By Henry Bargy. Librairie Armand Colin, Paris. 4½×7½ in. 295 pages.

The author writes with an enthusiasm and a clearness that are both characteristically Gallic. He keeps the reader, if he is an American, in a continual state of pleased surprise at the really splendid qualities of a people who have succeeded in cultivating so fine a variety of religion. The fact is that the author of this very readable book can be clear and enthusiastic and yet very genuinely bent on saying the pleasant thing because he is willing not to qualify what he says. He selects certain traits that he finds in the religious life of America, and he concentrates his whole attention on these. And, as a matter of fact, the traits he has selected are those not only which he can praise, but also which we Americans like to have praised. M. Bargy begins by saying that all the churches of the United States have something in common, in contradistinction to their "Mother Church" of Europe—so much so that they form what might be called "the American religion." He points out the two chief traits of this "American religion." It is, on the one hand, social; it is a fraternal kind of Christianity; it has to do with the community life and the safety of the social fabric. On the other hand, it is human; that is, it lays emphasis on the practical rather than on the speculative and the so-called supernatural. He ingeniously maintains that these two traits mark the religion of America from Colonial times and have made of religion America's most original possession. He traces their development in different forms. He uses them as guides to the explanation of the Puritans, of Methodism, of the liberal movement and the Unitarians, of the type of Roman Catholicism peculiar to America, of the Society for Ethical Culture, of one or two notable churches (as St. Bartholomew's in New York and Berkeley Temple in Boston), and of the "religious peace," even between Christianity and the Jews, which, as a European, he finds remarkable on this side of the Atlantic. It decidedly strengthens one's faith in the soundness of American life to find this Frenchman discovering in what seems to us Americans very familiar and commonplace things proofs of fresh and vital religious life, even if one knows of a very different sort of religious life that is not mentioned at all.

Laurel Readers (The): A Primer. By W. N. Hailmann. Illustrated. C. C. Birchard & Co., Boston. 8½×7 in. 112 pages.

Literary Pilgrimages in New England. By Edwin M. Bacon. Illustrated. Silver, Burdett & Co., New York. 5½×8 in. 532 pages. $1.50.

Readers of Mr. Bacon's "Historic Pilgrimages" will find the same general methods here applied to New England authors, their homes and associations. In a measure the book is a compilation, but the material is deftly and pleasantly woven together, with plenty of anecdotes and talk about literary landmarks. We are sorry that the publishers thought it necessary to embellish the cover with the imaginary portraits of two very inane-looking literary pilgrims, and the printing of the cuts generally is far from satisfactory.

London Before the Conquest. By W. R. Lethaby. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5½×8¼ in. 217 pages.

This appeals to the antiquarian rather than to the general reader. It deals with topography, ancient bounds, the few remaining monuments of London before the Conquest, and similar recondite matters.

Loyal Traitors: A Story of Friendship for the Filipinos. By Raymond L. Bridgman. The James H. West Co., Boston. 5×8 in. 310 pages.

An impassioned anti-imperialist tract rather than a novel. In the earlier chapters, at least, the characters are merely pegs upon which to hang anti-imperialist facts and figures. When, however, the scene shifts from Boston to the Philippines, and the "loyal traitors"—two of them deserters from the American army—risk their all in the struggle for Philippine independence, some of them fighting in the Filipino ranks, the interest in the story is quickened, and continues to gain to the end. The heroes of the story not only identify themselves with the Filipinos, but with the irreconcilable faction which refuses to lay down its arms while foreign troops are within the islands.

Manual of Short Daily Prayers for Families (A). Compiled by Rev. Samuel Hart, D.D. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 39 pages.

Man Visible and Invisible: Examples of Different Types of Men as Seen by Means of Trained Clairvoyance. By C. W. Leadbeater. Diagrams and Illustrations. John Lane, New York. 6×9½ in. 144 pages. $2.50.

This book tells how "a kind of film of rose-color covers the surface of the whole astral body," and gives pictures in colored plates of astral bodies of men, from the Maori to the lofty sort represented by one of the "Lord Buddha's" more advanced pupils! It is full of theosophical jargon which is designed to make great impression upon silly or shallow minds. The genuine army of books on psychical study are unfortunately discredited by the appearance of such a camp-follower in sham uniform.

Method of the Recitation (The). By Charles A. McMurry, Ph.D., and Frank M. McMurry, Ph.D. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 359 pages. 90c., net.

Money and Banking: An Introduction to the Study of Modern Currencies. By William A. Scott, Ph.D. Henry Holt & Co., New York. 5½×8½ in. 381 pages.

Negro Artisan (The): Report of a Social Study Made under the Direction of Atlanta University, Together with the Proceedings of the Seventh Conference for the Study of the Negro Problem, Held at Atlanta University on May 27, 1902. Edited by W. E. Burghardt Du Bois. Atlanta University Press, Atlanta. 6×9 in. 192 pages. Paper bound, 50c.

No student of the race problem, no person who would either think or speak upon it intelligently, can afford to be ignorant of the facts brought out in the Atlanta series of sociological studies of the conditions and the progress of the negro. These annual publications have won repeated praise from the Southern History Association, and from other most competent critics at home and abroad. The present volume is a historical and statistical study of the American negro as a skilled workman. The hand of the skilled and thorough investigator is conspicuous throughout. The Atlanta idea, embodied in this series, is as valuable in its way as is the Tuskegee idea in its way. Each is a way toward the light and the blessings of the light.

New York State Department of Labor Reports: First Annual Report of the Commissioner of Labor. Fifteenth Annual Report of the Board of Mediation and Arbitration, 1901. Nineteenth Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1901. J. B. Lyon Co., Albany, N. Y. 5½×9 in.

Nuggets from a Welsh Mine: Selections from the Writings of Jenkin Lloyd Jones. Unity Publishing Co., Chicago. 5¾×8 in. 127 pages.

These selections, brief paragraphs all, are classified under some fifteen heads, as the Home, the School, the Church, the City, Nature, Art, Religion, etc. Moral vigor and human sympathy, religious warmth, rational insight, and zeal for reality and truth are tersely and aptly expressed throughout.

One Divine Purpose (The); Through Evolutionary Processes Fulfilled in the Individualization of Substance, Life, and Intelligence in Man. By Meredith B. Little. The Glens Falls Publishing Co., Glens Falls, New York. 5½×8½ in. 78 pages. 10c.

Oliver Goldsmith. By Washington Irving. (Longmans' English Classics.) Edited by Lewis B. Semple, Ph.D. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 296 pages. 50c.

Of these two volumes, the latest additions to Longmans's English Classics, Irving's "Oliver Goldsmith" is edited with notes and an introduction by Dr. Lewis B. Semple; and, with the exception of the correction of a few typographical errors, the text remains as the author left it. A chronological table and suggestions for teachers are added. The three selections from the "Idylls of the King" are edited with notes and introduction by Miss Sophie C. Hart, of Wellesley College, whose introduction is in part biographical and in part descriptive of the poems. Both volumes are supplied with notes.

Paris Sketch Book (The). (Prose Works of William Makepeace Thackeray.) Edited by Walter Jerrold. Illustrated. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7¼ in. 356 pages. $1.

This volume carries still further towards completion the Dent edition of Thackeray, which The Outlook has already commended as possessing three valuable characteristics for the average reader—convenience of size, excellence of printing and binding, and an extremely low price. To this volume Mr. Walter Jerrold contributes a biographical note, giving some account of the articles in the Sketch-book, and Mr. Brock contributes a number of illustrations in his characteristic manner.

Path of Evolution Through Ancient Thought and Modern Science (The). By Henry Pemberton. Henry Altemus Co., Philadelphia. 5×7¾ in. 374 pages.

Under this title the author has sketched the story of the progress of human knowledge in many different lines. Mr. Pemberton is a highly intelligent layman in science and philosophy. He has read widely and thought wisely. His story of the growth of science is profitable reading for those who would obtain a bird's-eye view of its present field and reach.

Philadelphians (The): As Seen by a New York Woman. By Katharine Bingham. Illustrated. L. C. Page & Co., Boston. 4½×7 in. 227 pages. $1.25.

Pompeii of the West and Other Poems. By John Hall Ingham. The J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia. 5×7¾ in. 173 pages. $1.25, net.

Quarterly of the Texas State Historical Association (The). Vol. V. July, 1901, to April, 1902. Published by the Association, Austin, Texas. 6×9 in. 370 pages.

St. Augustine and His Age. By Joseph McCabe. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 5½×8 in. 516 pages. $2, net.

Reserved for later notice.

Sally Wister's Journal: A True Narrative. Illustrated. Ferris & Leach, Philadelphia. 5×8 in. 224 pages.

"Sally Wister's Journal" is the true narrative of a Quaker maiden's experiences with the officers of the Continental army in 1777 and 1778. Through the publication of such volumes as this we gain an insight into American society during critical periods which it would be quite impossible to gain from the sober histories. The present volume has been admirably edited, with notes, by Mr. Albert Cook Myers, who has also inserted many an interesting reproduction of portraits, silhouettes, manuscripts, and relics. The Journal is addressed by its author to an intimate school friend, Deborah Norris, herself destined to become notable in later years. The two young ladies had apparently kept up a frequent correspondence until the British occupation of Philadelphia, when Sally's confidences to her friend took the form of a journal. It is graphic and dramatic, full of good humor and fun, acute and clever in describing persons and events, and now and then quaintly moralizing.

Selections from Latin Prose Authors for Sight Reading. By Susan Braley Franklin, Ph.D., and Ella Catherine Greene, A.B. The American Book Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 80 pages. 60c.

Short Method Christian Science (A). By Albert G. Lawson, D.D. The American Baptist Publication Society, Philadelphia. 5×7¾ in. 56 pages.

Some Actors on Our Lord's Passion. By Rev. Hermann Lilienthal, M.A. Thomas Whittaker, New York. 5×7½ in. 157 pages. 80c., net.

Special Method in the Reading of Complete English Classics. By Charles McMurry, Ph.D. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 254 pages. 75c.

Story of a Motto and a Mark (The). By Walter Gilliss. Illustrated. The Gilliss Press, New York. 4×7 in. 42 pages.

Students' History of English History (A). By William Edward Simonds, Ph.D. Illustrated. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. 5×7¾ in. 483 pages.

Terra Cotta: A Study of Life in the Clay. By Alice McAlilly. Jennings & Pye, Cincinnati. 5½×8 in. 281 pages.

Theology of Christ's Teaching (The). By the Rev. John M. King, D.D. The Fleming H. Revell Co., New York. 6×9 in. 484 pages. $2.50.

Theologians may be divided into two classes—those who look at the Bible through the creed, and those who look at the creed through the Bible. By the latter only can Biblical theology be satisfactorily taught. Biblical theology, as expounded by the former, is only dogmatic theology in disguise. It is to the former, by far the more numerous class, that Principal King belonged. The varieties of Christian doctrine all grow out of the various interpretations of the Bible. Their germs all lie in the Bible, side by side. A truly Biblical theology must recognize this—must acknowledge the inclusive as well as the exclusive significance of Biblical statements. For instance, when Dr. King says of Christ: "He came to die. 'The Son of Man came . . . to give his life a ransom for many' (Matt. xx., 28)," he fails to see that the phrase "to give his life" includes his self-devotion from first to last to the great purpose of the deliverance of men from sin; he narrows its meaning to the final act of laying down the life which had been laid down daily in his work of deliverance. This is not Biblical theology, but rather creedal, of the evangelical Presbyterian type. This characteristic runs through the work, holding, as it does, that the historicity of early Old Testament narratives is established by Christ's use of them for the purposes of illustration, and also finding the end of the "world" (rather than of the "age," as in the margin of the Revised Version) in Jesus' discourses concerning the last things. Dr. King, however, was a man of power, and much beloved. His character and work, as sketched by Dr. Orr, attract both sympathy and warm esteem.

Unitarianism in America: A History of its Origin and Development. By George Willis Cooke. The American Unitarian Association, Boston. 5½×8½ in. 463 pages. $2, net.

The term Unitarianism may signify either a denomination, a group of theological doctrines, or a religious movement. There are some men who may be said to have participated in the great movement for liberalizing religious life and thought who do not hold to the theological ideas of Unitarians. There are some who may be said to hold to these ideas that are not within the Unitarian denomination. A history of Unitarianism to be complete cannot omit any one of these aspects of it, but it ought to make very clear the distinctions between them. There is nothing more vague and indefinite than a religious movement. It has no more set and visible limits than the tide. For that very reason many men who may be said to participate in Unitarianism as a religious movement should be called Unitarians only with very distinct and emphatic qualification. Denominational Unitarians, however, are very generous with their name, and have ever shown themselves ready to apply that name to men to whom it belongs only in this very qualified sense. John Greenleaf Whittier, for instance, may very properly be counted as one of those who belong to that great liberalizing religious movement characteristic of the last century, and for that reason he is classed in this volume among Unitarians, though recognized as a Friend; but it is not safe to argue from his sympathy with the liberal movement that he either held the Unitarian theology—indefinite as that is—or would be willing to count himself as among those whom the Unitarian denomination might rightfully claim. The author of this volume has shown wisdom in laying emphasis upon Unitarianism as a religious movement, because it is as a religious movement more than as a denomination, and even more than as a group of doctrines, that Unitarianism has been chiefly influential; that it can be said to have embraced the most eminent names that are included, for instance, in this volume; that it commands to-day, as it has commanded for three generations, a position of great importance in American history. But, like others who are avowedly and distinctly Unitarian, the author has been generous to a fault. So all-embracing is his conception of Unitarianism that he is willing to say, "So long as New England has been in existence, so long, at least, Unitarianism, in its motives and in its spirit, has been at work in the name of toleration, liberty, and free inquiry." This might be called pre-Unitarian Unitarianism. There is much that is suggestive in his book. He very well and frankly states the extreme position of Protestantism, that resulted in the conception of a Church composed of a select band of righteous people—righteous by no other sanction than their own assertion; and it is suggestive to find him pointing out that the Unitarians, who formerly were the most radical exponents of this theory of the Church, are moving toward saner and more social conceptions. The defects of this book are the defects of such complacent generosity as we have indicated. Its chief virtues arise from somewhat the same trait. As the result, this book, which to most people on reading the title would seem to be a history of the denomination, is really a very broad and readable account of a religious movement that is only in part characterized by a specific belief.

Woman's Hardy Garden (A). By Helena Rutherford Ely. Illustrated. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×8 in. 216 pages. $1.75, net.

See "Home Floriculture" on page 591.

Correspondence

The Delaware Bribery

To the Editors of The Outlook:

In the article by Mr. George Kennan, "Holding Up a State," in The Outlook of February 7, on page 282, about a third down the first column, the statement is made that " he [Mr. Kennan] obtained in Dover a lot of ten-dollar notes whose numbers ran from 33,414 to 34,691, showing the use of $12,770." Mr. Kennan has apparently overlooked the manner in which ten-dollar National bank notes are printed. They are issued in sheets to the banks. Each sheet contains three ten-dollar notes and one twenty-dollar note. The three tens are printed at the top and the twenty at the bottom of the sheet. All notes on the same sheet have the *same* number. In addition to the number the top bill contains the letter " A," the next bill below the letter " B," the third bill the letter "C," and the fourth bill, which is the twenty, the letter "A."

Therefore, if all the ten-dollar notes between the numbers he mentions were used in Delaware, they amounted to $38,310 instead of $12,770.

In the same paragraph his estimate of $20,000 might safely be made $60,000, by figuring $30 to a number.

ALBERT G. BROCK, Cashier.

Pacific National Bank, Nantucket, R. I.

With regard to this Mr. Kennan sends us the following note: "I took to the Treasury Department the notes of the Merchants' National Bank of Boston that I brought from Delaware, and made inquiries with regard to the numbers. The clerk of the National Bank Division, to whom I applied for information, probably did not understand the object of my questions, and neglected to inform me that all the ten-dollar notes on the same sheet bear the same number, and that, consequently, the numbers from 33,414 to 34,691 represent $38,310 instead of $12,770. The larger sum agrees much more nearly with estimates that I have obtained from other sources of the amount spent by Addicks workers in Kent County. A high official of the State is said to have admitted to a friend in that county, on the 5th of November last, "We spent $200,000 in Delaware yesterday." Of this amount, Kent and Sussex Counties probably received at least $150,000. How much of it was in notes of the Merchants' National Bank of Boston I do not know; but that the southern part of the State was flooded with new bills of that particular bank there is no question."

The Statehood Bill

To the Editors of The Outlook:

First. If Mr. Quay is using the Statehood Bill designedly to prevent anti-trust legislation, why is it that, since December 10, when by agreement reached last summer before the adjournment of Congress, his bill came up as the special order, he has repeatedly asked to set a date for voting on the measure, which request his opponents have uniformly refused? Is it not clear that they refuse because they fear they are in a minority (or for some other reason), and that they, and not the advocates of the measure—apparently in the majority—are the ones who are blocking legislation?

Second. Is it not true that there are Senators among the opponents of the Statehood Bill (for instance, Mr. Hanna) who are just as much champions of the great corporate interests as is Mr. Quay? Whatever may be Mr. Quay's real motives in pushing his bill, is it not as likely at least that the opponents of the bill are prolonging the discussion in order to prevent anti-trust legislation as that Mr. Quay is using the measure for that purpose?

L. T. E.

Washington, D. C.

[As to our correspondent's first question, it is very possible that the majority of the Senate are in favor of the Statehood Bill; but it is very certain that Senator Quay and a combination of Democrats, with a few Republicans, prevented the Senate from taking any action on important measures which are vital to the welfare of certain sections of the country—the Philippine Islands, for example—unless the Republican party, to which Mr. Quay belongs, would consent to the passage of the Omnibus Statehood Bill, to which an overwhelming majority of the Republican party is opposed. As to the second question, we think not.—THE EDITORS.]

The Overthrow of Prohibition in Vermont

To the Editors of The Outlook:

I am sure that the temperance people of Vermont will not thank you for congratulating them upon the overthrow of prohibition within the State. The prohibitory law has not "promoted secret drinking-places," though it has not entirely abolished them. Nor has it "excited the spirit of lawlessness," or "tended to public corruption and blackmail." And it has not made the people of Vermont "liars and hypocrites," as Bishop Potter has kindly and courteously told us that it does. We do not think ourselves extremely virtuous "because we have incorporated virtue in a statute," but we believe that, in spite of the prohibitory liquor law, we are as free from drunkenness, lawlessness, blackmail, mendacity, and hypocrisy as the inhabitants of New York City, who seem so anxious to preach temperance and sincerity to us. And in view of the notorious corruption of New York City, we may be pardoned if, instead of humbling ourselves and confessing our faults, we say to these evangelists of temperance and sincerity, "Physician, heal thyself." The people of Vermont do not claim to have solved the problem of abolishing drunkenness, and they are willing to learn of any who are capable of teaching them, but as long as New York and Massachusetts cannot control the liquor nuisance within their own borders, it seems as though they might permit Vermont to continue to try its own crude method, which, however inadequate, has given the State a reputation for temperance and virtue unexcelled by that of any other State in the country. Let it be granted that our prohibitory liquor law has not been adequately enforced, yet is it not a notorious fact that there is not in the whole country a single license law that is adequately enforced, or that has in any perceptible measure diminished the illegal sale of intoxicating liquors? Do not the licensed dealers habitually violate all the restrictive features of the license laws, and do not the low dives and kitchen bar-rooms flourish under the eaves of the licensed saloons? Why, then, is there such an outcry because the prohibitory laws of Maine and Vermont and Kansas are not enforced? If the truth were known, the most serious objection to these laws is that they are so well enforced.

H. F. FORREST.

Mechanicsville, Vt.

The Working of Prohibition

The Rev. G. H. Beard, of Burlington, Vt., also writes to protest against our congratulations of Vermont on its recent action substituting local option for prohibition. He insists that prohibition in Vermont has closed all the open saloons, that it does not promote secret drinking-places more than license does, that it does not excite the spirit of lawlessness, and that public corruption and blackmail under prohibition are as "nothing compared with that which attaches to the working of the licensed saloon" "with its manipulation of legislative action and police-protected lawbreaking." He says that to his witness we "may add every Congregational minister in every one of the larger towns of the State." We give this protest to our readers, but it does not in the least modify our convictions, derived from a somewhat intimate knowledge of the workings of prohibition in the State of Maine, and some trustworthy information as to its working in the States of Vermont and Kansas.

By inadvertence it was stated in the editorial paragraph entitled "Prohibition and Law Enforcement in Maine," in The Outlook for February 21, that the figures quoted regarding arrests in Brockton, Mass., were indicative of the experience of that city after "eleven years of high license." The phrase should have been "eleven years of no license" under a local option law. This inaccuracy makes Mr. Cutler's statement weaker than it originally was. The real comparison is not between prohibition and high license, but between the relative efficiency of local prohibition (no license) under a local option law and that of State prohibition under constitutional requirement.

As the mother rocks the cradle, love transforms it to a kind of loom whereon her fond fancy weaves a bright-colored future for her child. As the child grows the wise mother feeds his mind with precepts of integrity and industry; his brain and body with all-nourishing food in order that he may be strong for life's battle and find an honored place with men.

SHREDDED WHOLE WHEAT BISCUIT

is the Natural Food—the food whose each integral part has an exact counterpart in the human body—the food that builds the perfect whole because it builds the perfect parts. The perfect food to *perfect* man. SHREDDED WHOLE WHEAT BISCUIT is more porous than any other food—that means more digestible. It is quickly transformed into rich blood, firm flesh, hardy muscles and an active brain. **Sold by all grocers.**

Send for "The Vital Question" (Cook Book, illustrated in colors) **FREE.** Address **THE NATURAL FOOD CO.,** NIAGARA FALLS, N. Y.

HEALTHFUL EXERCISE IN 1847

PLAIN LIVING THE RULE IN 1847

When Our Grandparents Were Young

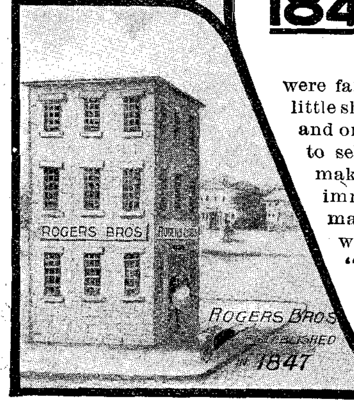
electro-silver plated spoons and forks—at that time a marvelous invention—were first offered for sale by the makers, *Rogers Bros.* Although their business was established in the year *1847*, people were skeptical as to the merits of the goods, and they had extreme difficulty in first introducing them. Such sales as they made, however, brought new orders, and in a short time

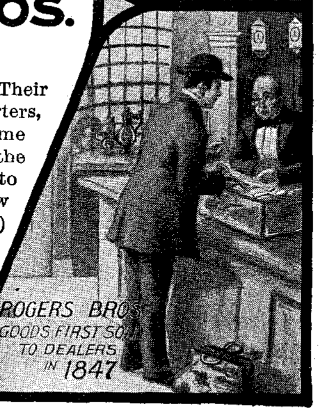
"1847 ROGERS BROS."

Spoons, Forks, Etc.

were famous in the eyes of all silver users. Their little shop was soon exchanged for larger quarters, and one of the brothers devoted his entire time to selling, while another superintended the making. To-day the business has grown to immense proportions, and the goods now made, shown in catalogue No. 61 W (sent free) will interest any person who desires *"Silver Plate that Wears."* Made only by the successors to Rogers Bros.

MERIDEN BRITANNIA CO.,
Meriden, Conn.
(International Silver Co. Successor)




ROGERS BROS GOODS FIRST SOLD TO DEALERS IN 1847

Malta-Vita
REGIMENT OF COOKS
WILL DO YOUR COOKING
Malta Vita

WE DO YOUR COOKING

Over Thirty Millions of wholesome delicious meals of MALTA-VITA are prepared each month by the MALTA-VITA Regiment of cooks.

The month of March is the opening of Spring, and is the proper time for you to select a change of diet for renovating your system and cleansing the blood of all impurities which may have accumulated during the winter months caused by eating heavy and heating foods.

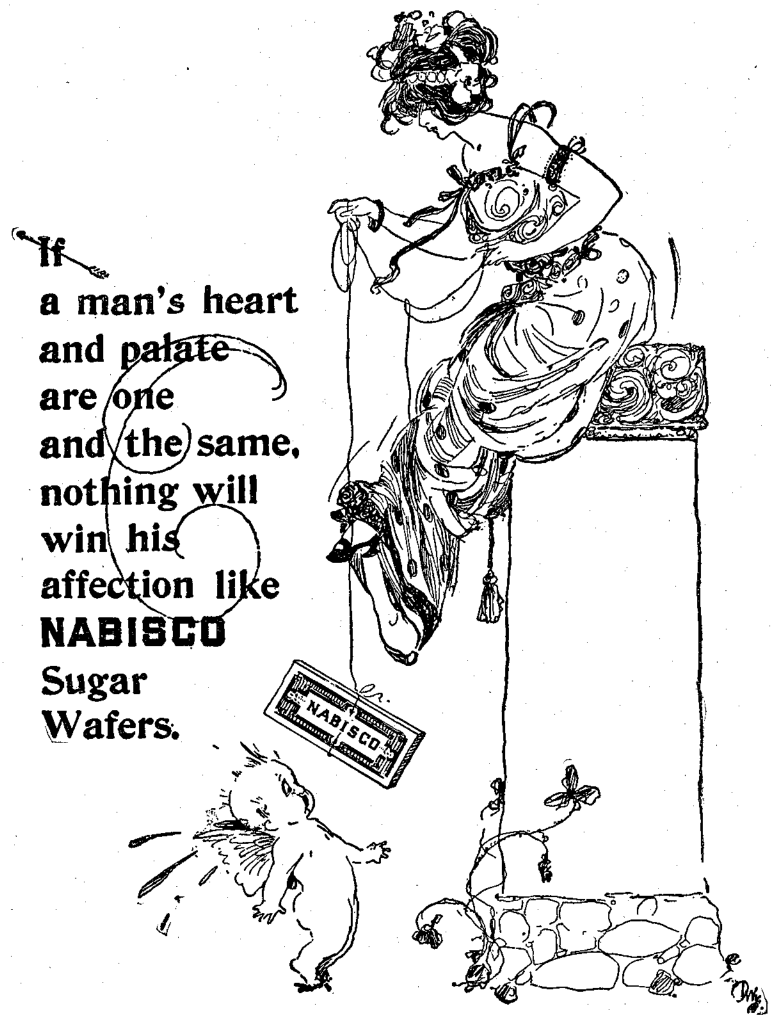
ONE MEAL A DAY OF MALTA-VITA, "The Perfect Food," will accomplish this result. MALTA-VITA is light, nourishing, and purifying; it is the whole of the wheat properly combined with malt extract, thoroughly cooked and ready to eat. THE TONIC EFFECTS OF MALT ARE BENEFICIAL AT THIS TIME OF THE YEAR.

Inspect closely the literature in our package.

MALTA-VITA is sold by all first-class grocers.

MALTA-VITA PURE FOOD COMPANY

BATTLE CREEK, MICHIGAN
TORONTO, CANADA


If a man's heart and palate are one and the same, nothing will win his affection like NABISCO Sugar Wafers.
NABISCO

Copyright 1903
National Biscuit Company.

Everybody loves Nabisco Sugar Wafers. Served as the finishing touch to a banquet or with a beverage, they charm you with their indescribable delicacy and delicious flavoring of Cherry, Chocolate, Vanilla, Lemon, Orange, Raspberry, Strawberry or Mint.

Festino

A new idea in confections. The perfect reproduction of nuts and fruit, to be issued from time to time, just to add to life the spice of variety. Number one is an Almond. Deceiving in appearance, but fascinating in flavor. You eat the shell, and discover within a kernel of almond flavor.

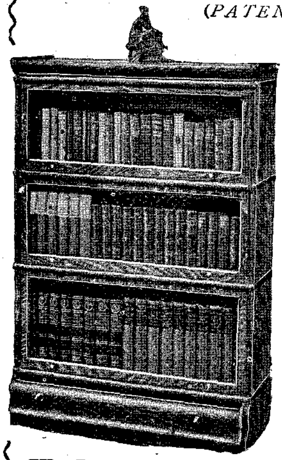
NATIONAL BISCUIT COMPANY

SOMETHING NEW!

We are now selling base sections for our sectional book-cases equipped **with drawers**—nice, neat and convenient, suitable for magazines, odd articles, etc., and at small expense.

"MACEY" SECTIONAL BOOK-CASES

(PATENTED)



Received the Gold Medal—the highest awards at both the Pan-American and Charleston Expositions. They are better made than any other sectional book-case ever produced, and are sold direct to the user at the same price charged for ordinary book-cases.

Price $1.00 Per Section

and upwards, according to the style and finish.

WE ALLOW FREIGHT

to all points east of the Mississippi and north of Tennessee and North Carolina. Points beyond on an equal basis.

Ask for Catalogue "1=CC."

THE FRED MACEY CO., Ltd., Grand Rapids, Mich.

Makers of High-Grade Office and Library Furniture including the most complete lines of

CARD INDEX SYSTEMS AND **SECTIONAL FILING CABINETS**

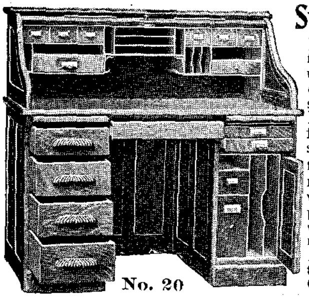
BRANCHES:

NEW YORK, 343 Broadway. CHICAGO, N. Y. Life Building.
BOSTON, 178 Federal St. PHILADELPHIA, 13th & Market Sts.

6% Per Annum Taxes Paid

IN order to take care of our rapidly increasing business, we propose to enlarge our factories at Grand Rapids, Michigan, April 1st, 1903, by the erection of another large four-story brick building; and in order to do so, offer for sale, at par, 1,000 shares of $100 each of our 6% Treasury Preferred Stock. This stock is CUMULATIVE—pays 3% SEMI-ANNUALLY, and the TAXES ARE PAID by the company. Over one-half of this stock has already been sold, and subscriptions for the balance will be received until April 1st, 1903. For particulars address Fred Macey, Chairman, The Fred Macey Company, Ltd. (Makers of High Grade Office and Library Furniture), Grand Rapids, Mich.

REFERENCES: Any Agency of Bradstreet or R. G. Dun & Co., or any bank in Grand Rapids.



No. 20

Stafford's $21.00 Desk

Finished golden **polished, fine quartered oak front, built up panels and writing bed,** double deck top, moulded stiles, automatic locks, 2 legal blank drawers, letter file, 6 all wood file boxes, supply drawer, **hang over front**, center drawer, document file, **card index drawer with cards**, back paneled and polished. 48 in. long, 30 in. wide, 48 in. high. **Sent to any responsible person on approval.** Ask for catalogs with factory prices:

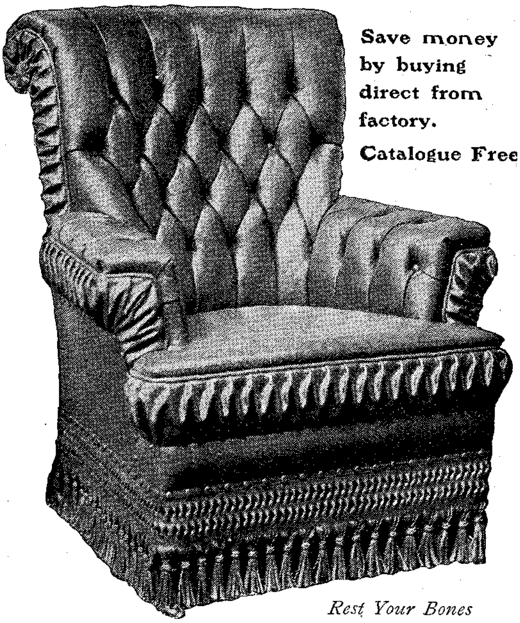
Office Furniture, No. 9.
House Furniture, No. 10.

E. H. STAFFORD & BROS., 18-20 Van Buren Street, CHICAGO

I Print My Own Cards

Circulars, Newspaper. Press **$5.** Larger sizes **$18.** Money saver. Big profits printing for others. Type-setting easy, rules sent. Write for catalog, presses, type, paper, &c., to factory.

THE PRESS CO., - Meriden, Conn.



Save money by buying direct from factory.

Catalogue Free

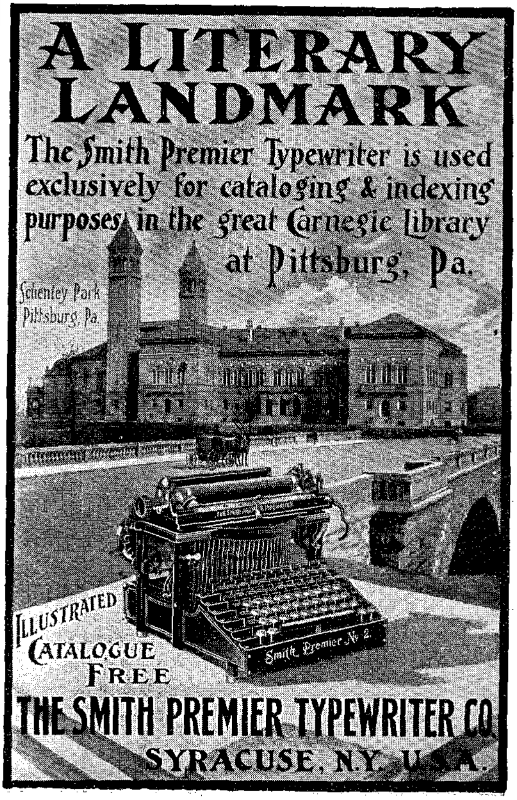
Rest Your Bones

Leather Lasts Long

(Rich Turkish Rocker)

Good leather will outlast any known upholstering material. There is a difference in the way leather furniture is made as well as in the leather. We use the best part of the hide ONLY and make all our work BY HAND. We will ship it anywhere on APPROVAL. Catalogue of many designs FREE.

THE Harris Manufacturing Co.
198 Columbia Street, Springfield, O.



A LITERARY LANDMARK

The Smith Premier Typewriter is used exclusively for cataloging & indexing purposes in the great Carnegie Library at Pittsburg, Pa.

ILLUSTRATED CATALOGUE FREE

THE SMITH PREMIER TYPEWRITER CO
SYRACUSE, N.Y. U.S.A.